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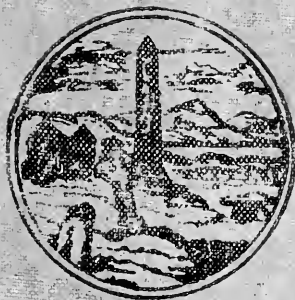
GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.



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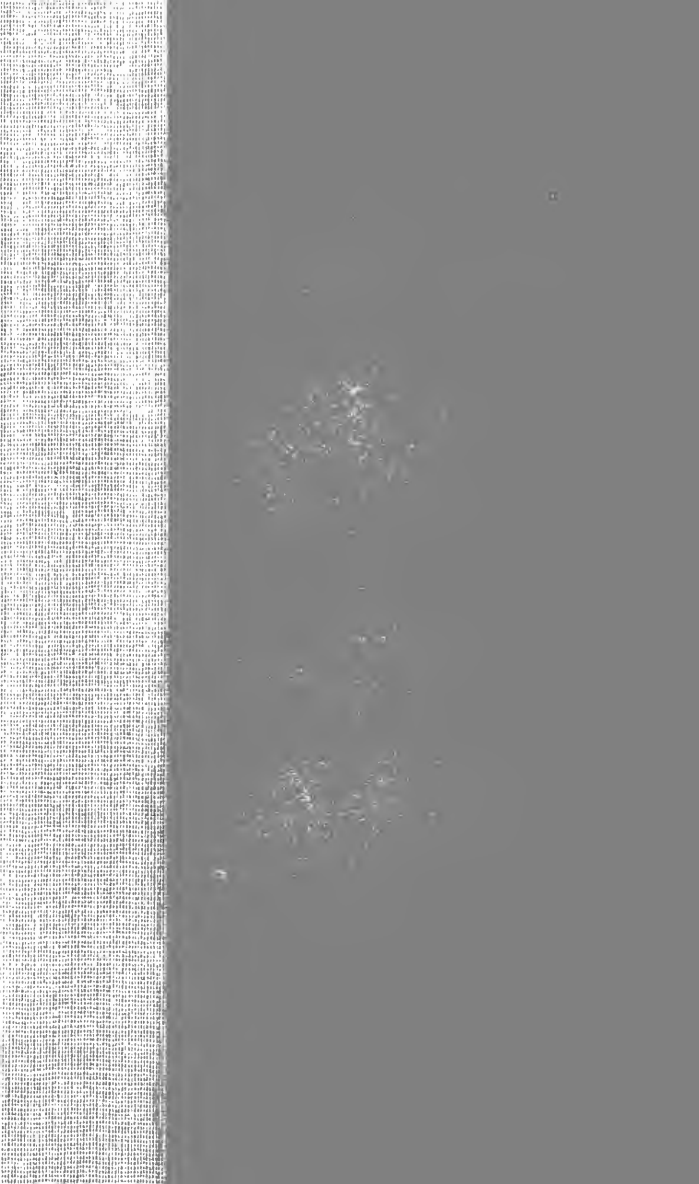
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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.,

ONE OF THE PROFESSORS IN THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT OF THE
COMMISSIONERS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION, IRELAND.



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WORKS BY P. W. JOYCE, LL.D.

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PREFACE.

THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, "The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin" (viz., "The Fate of the Children of Usna," "The Fate of the Children of Lir," and "The Fate of the Children of Turenn"), and occasionally the "Annals of the Four Masters." The language of the various works published by the Archæological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner's difficulty.

In the last Part—"Idioms"—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third, all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

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SCHOOL IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*; of which *a*, *o*, *u* are broad, and *e*, *i* are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to *b*, *p*, *h*, *m*, *p*, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as *bán*, white: a short vowel has no mark; as *mac*, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao* or the triphthong *aoi*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *caol* (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: *caom* (gentle) is neither *keen* or *queen*, but something between.

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gaol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *o* and *u* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*: that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish *o* and *u* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *o* and *u* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *o* and *u*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *o* and *u* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *n* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *p* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS.

Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
Irish.	Eng.				
á	a	a	long	lín	lawn, ball
à	"	"	short	mac	bat or what
ò	b	b	..	ball	ban
c	c	c	..	broad	cob
..	"	"	..	slender	king
* ò	d	d	..	broad	those
..	"	"	..	slender	cordial
è	e	e	long	mé	date
..	"	"	short	..	met
ë	f	f	fin
ò	g	g	..	broad	got
..	"	"	..	slender	get, gimlet
h	h	h	hammer
l	i	i	long	..	seen
..	"	"	short	..	pin
* ù	l	l	..	broad	lone
..	"	"	..	slender	vermilion
ín	m	m	mill
* N	n	n	..	broad	none
..	"	"	..	slender	new
ó	o	o	long	..	more
..	"	"	short	..	love, run
p	p	p	pore
R	r	r	..	broad	road
* ..	"	"	..	slender	clarion
s	r	s	..	broad	son
..	"	"	..	slender	sheen
* t	t	t	..	broad	thumb
* ..	"	"	..	slender	courteous
ú	u	u	long	..	moor, rude
..	"	"	short	..	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. áilm, *a*; beicé, *b*; coll, *c*; daip, *d*; eaða, *e*; fearn, *f*; gort, *g*; uaé, *h*; ioða, *i*; luip, *l*; muin, *m*; num, *n*; oip or onn, *o*; peicé-boé, *p*; ruip, *r*; ruil, *s*; teime, *t*; úp, *u*.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., æ, ao, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, iu, oi, ui; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. æ sounds like *ay* in *slay*; as *pæ*, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. ao, in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we*. Thus *maop*, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mwээр* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair*; as in *peup*, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. ia like *ee* in *beer*; as in *ciap*, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer*.

7. ua nearly like *oe* in *doer*; as in *luan*, Monday, pronounced *loo-an*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent.

9. ai long has an accent over the *a*, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing*; as in *cáin*, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

ai short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier*; as in *maic*, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, ai short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell*; as in *aipoc*, restitution, which is pronounced *ashoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. éa long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds

like *ea* in *bear*; thus *méap*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

ea short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in *pear*, knowledge, pronounced *fass*.

11. *éi* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as *pém*, a course, pronounced *rain*.

e short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *ceip*, a basket, sounded like *kesh*.

12. *eó* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in *ceól*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in *veoç*, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. *íó* long has an accent over the *i*, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in *píon*, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

io short, nearly like short *i*; as in *míopp*, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. *íu* long has an accent over the *u*, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in *píú*, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

iu short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in *pluüç*, wet.

15. *óí* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing*; as in *póil*, a while, pronounced *fō-il*.

oi short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in *toil*, the will.

16. *úí* long, with an accent over the *u*, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *púl*, the eye, pronounced *soo-il*.

uí long, with an accent over the *i*, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in *buíðe*, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

ui short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in *fuiréog*, a lark, pronounced *fwishoge*.

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—*aoi*, *coi*, *loi*, *uii*, *uai*.

2. *Coi* is sounded very like *we*, as in *maom*, wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. *Coi* is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yō-ing*; as in *peoil*, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yō-il*.

4. *loi* is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as *leaiḡ*, a physician.

5. *lui* like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as *cium*, gentle.

6. *Uai* like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *buaib*, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. *Cl* and *o* before *m*, *nn*, *ll*, or *nḡ*, in monosyllables, and often before *nt* and *nc*, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as *cam*, crooked, and *coll*, hazel, pronounced *cown* and *cowl*; and *ḡleannṫán*, a small glen, pronounced *glounthawn*: and *o* before *ð* and *ḡ* has often the same sound; as *poḡlaun*, learning, pronounced *fowlim*.

2. *Cl̃* and *aḡ* are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as *paḃaṛc*, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; *laðap*, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; *maðm*, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3. The termination *að* is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus *bualað*, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination *ðl*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *coðlað*, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination *ln*, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *colna*, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination *ðn*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as *n* or *nn*; as *céaðna*, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus *míne*, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in *cpoíðe*, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus *lopɣ*, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug*. *Oealð*, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv*, but *dallav*; *peapð*, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; *bopb*, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; *colɣ*, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term “aspiration” is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, b, c, d, f, g, m, p, r, t; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as *ċ*; or by placing h after it, as *ch*.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. bh or ḃ is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a bean, his wife, pronounced *a van*; gabal, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. Ch broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, Irish loch, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than *ċ* broad; as ṁiċiall, folly, in which the *ċ* sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel*.

7. Oh and ġ have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as a ġean, his love, pronounced *a yan*. Oh and ġ

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad *c* in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as *ṗiaö*, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final *g* is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as *Copcaig* (dative of *Copcaé*, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. *Ph* is always silent; thus *a ṗiop*, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; *an ṗeaóóg*, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

9. *Mh* is very nearly the same as *b*, viz., like *v* or *w*; as *a mháṗ*, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. *Ph* has the sound of *f*, as *a ṗian*, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. *Sh* and *é* are the same as *h*; as *a ṗál*, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; *a éobap*, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns *mo*, *my*; *do*, *thy*; and *a*, *his*, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as *mo úó*, my cow; *do éeann*, thy head; *a góṗṣ*, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;† as *an bean*, the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *an gúirt*, of the garden.

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter *p*. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from *ceann*, a head, and *bpat*, a garment, is formed *ceannbpat*, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections *a* and *O*, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as *a p̃ip*, *O man*.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as *bó bán*, a white cow; *cat bán*, of a white cat; *a p̃ip m̃óip*, *O great man*; *a bean p̃em̃*, *O mild woman*; *capaill bána*, white horses. (*o* and *τ* are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles *do* and *a*; as *do d̃éanao* or *a d̃éanao*, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as *do p̃ear pé*, he stood: (3) by the particles *ní*, not, and *má*, if: as *ní beio pí*, she will not be; *má p̃earann pé*, if he stands; (4), by the relative *a*, who, (expressed or understood); as *an té a buailear* the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as *aip báip*, on top; *do m̃ullaé*, to a summit; *paoi g̃ean*, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipsis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in *n-bán*, *o* is eclipsed by *n*,

and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *ḃán* is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—*b, c, ḃ, p, ḡ, p, r, t*; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as *m-bárp*; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as *bpopr*. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus *a tcapḃ* is the same as *a ḃ-tapḃ*, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. *b* is eclipsed by *m*; as *a m-bárp*, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. *c* is eclipsed by *ḡ*: as *a ḡ-coll*, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. *ḃ* by *n*; as *a n-ḃop*, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. *p* by *b* (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as *a b-peapann*, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. *ḡ* is eclipsed by *n*. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of *n*, but the sound of English *ng*; thus *a nḡiolla*, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. *p* is eclipsed by *b*; as *a b-pian*, their pain, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. *s* is eclipsed by *t*, as in *an t-rúil*, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. *t* is eclipsed by *ḃ*; as *a ḃ-tál*, their adze, pronounced *a dawł*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—*ár*, our.

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

bup, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as áp ò-tiḡcapna, our Lord; bup ḡ-cpánn, your tree; a b-páipe, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teač na m-bápò, the house of the bards; ḡopɛ na ḡ-capall, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed; as aip an m-bópò, on the table; ó'n ò-páipe, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles a, an, cá, nač; also after ḡo, that; muna, unless; iap, after; óá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beipeann pe? Does he bear? an m-buail-eann tú? Dost thou strike? cá ò-puil pí? Where is she? nač ò-tuiḡeann tu? Dost thou not understand? ḡo m-beannaḡe Óia òuit, may God bless thee; muna ò-tuitpíp, unless thou shalt fall; óá n-beappánn, if I would say; an típ ann a ò-táinic píab, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with p is preceded by the article, the p is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as an ɛ-paoippe (fem.), the freedom; ḡopɛ an ɛ-paḡaipɛ, the field of the priest; aip an ɛ-paoḡal, or aip an paoḡal, in the world. But if the p is followed by b, c, ò, ḡ, m, p, or ɛ, it is not eclipsed; as ḡleann an pmóil, the valley of the thrush; loč an pčáil, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Rule 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter *n* is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except *p*) would be eclipsed ; as a *n*-apán, their bread ; loç na n-éan, the lake of the birds.*

v. Caol le caol agus leatán le leatán, OR SLENDER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad ; thus in *polap*, light, the *o* and the *a* are both broad vowels ; and in *tinneap*, sickness, the *i* and the *e* are both slender vowels. But such combinations as *polip* and *tinnap* are not allowable, because the *o* and the *i* in the first case, and the *i* and the *a* in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel ; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel ; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed ; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse ; thus when *cóm* is prefixed to *peapam*, standing, the word is *cómpeapam*, competition, not *cómípeapam*.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish *caoluḡaḡ* (i.e., making slender, from *caol*, slender), and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish *leatnuḡaḡ* (i.e., making broad, from *leatán*, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when *ball*, a spot, is changed to *baill*, spots; or when *pá* is postfixed to *buail*, and the resulting word is *buailpeá*, not *buailpá*: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cinn*, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination *paḡ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailpaḡ*, but *buailpeaḡ*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *aḡ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *builaḡ* but *bualaḡ*.

10. When *móir*, great, is prefixed to *cion*, love, the compound is not *móirḡcion* but *móirḡc-ion*, great love.

11. When *ceann*, head, is prefixed to *litr*, a letter, the compound is not *ceannlitr* but *cinnlitr*, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *óg* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuilóg* but *culeóg*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *opdóg*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *opdóge* but *opdóige*, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *capall*, a horse, the whole word is not *capallín* but *capallín*.

VI. SYNCOPÉ.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*l*, *n*, *p*, or *r*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel ; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c. ; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. *lánaína*, a married couple ; plural *lánaíma*, contracted from *lánaímana*.

6. *lapaip*, a flame ; plural *lappaíca*, contracted from *lappaíca*.

7. *focal*, a word ; plural *foclóip*, a dictionary, contracted from *foclóip*.

8. *Saibip*, rich ; comparative *paibípe*, contracted from *paibípe*.

9. *Cačaip*, a city ; genitive *cačpač*, contracted from *cačpač*.

10. *Plačeamail*, princely ; comparative *plačeamíla*, contracted from *plačeamíla*.

11. *Colann*, the body, genitive *colna*, (sometimes *colla*), contracted from *colanna*.

12. *Capa*, genitive *capač* : the plural is formed by adding *e* to this, which syncopates the second *a* : this would make *capípe*, which again, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c., is made *capípe*.

13. *Uapal*, noble, becomes *uapíle* in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. *Pollup*, evident, becomes *poillípe* in the comparative in a similar way.

15. *Abann*, a river : the plural is formed by adding *e* ; this causes syncope of the second *a* and the omission of one *n*, which would make the plural *abíne* ; and this again becomes *abíne*, by the rule *caol le caol* &c.

16. *Labáip*, speak (imperative mood) ; *labáipam*, I speak, contracted from *labáipam*,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, *an*, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form *an* in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *na*; as *caisleán na cipe*, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always *na*.

4. In the spoken language the *n* of *an* is often omitted before a consonant; as *ceann a cairb*, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When *an* follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the *a* is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, *ó an tír*, from the land, is written *ó'n tír*; and *pá an ngréin*, under the sun, is written *pá'n ngréin*.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the *n* of the article joined with the preposition; as *ón τῖρ*, *πάν νῆρῑν*.

6. In the plural the article (*na*) is often joined to the preposition; as *ḃona*, for *ḃo na*.

7. The letter *ρ* is inserted between certain prepositions and the article *an*; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus *ann an leabap*, in the book, is written *annρ an leabap*, and *ῑρ an leabap*, which is still further shortened to *pan leabap*: also (omitting the *n*) *annρa leabap*, and even *pa leabap*. And in the plural, *ῑρ na coppaḃ*, "in the bodies."

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except *ρ*, *τ*, *ḃ*), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as *an ḃó*, the cow; *cuan an ḃῑρ mḃῑρ*, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with *ρ*, followed by a vowel or by *l*, *n*, or *p*, the *ρ* is eclipsed by *τ* in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as *an τ-ḃál* (fem.), the heel; *an τ-ḃpón* (fem.), the nose; *luac an τ-ḃḃiam* (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative masculine, and *h* to the genitive feminine; as *an τ-ačap*, the father; *leabap na h-uḃḃe*, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except *ḃ* or *τ*), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as *aḃp*

an ḡ-cpann, on the tree; ó'n b-pocal íber, "from the word 'íber;'" leip an b-peap, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions do and de, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceitíne céime do'n éipíor, four degrees of the zone (Keating); do leanadóir a ḡ-copa do'n éappairḡ, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with l, n, p, b, t, or with p before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as mup na b-píóðbað, [the] island of the woods; caulín deap epúíðce na m-bó, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes n to the genitive, and h to the other cases; as típ na n-óḡ, the land of the young (people); ó na h-áitib pín, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coileac*, a cock; *laoc* a hero; *peap*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *boiṫceall*, churlishness: except (a), derivatives in *aṫṫ*; (b), diminutives in *óg*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *óip*, *aip*, *aṫ*, *aíṫe* (or *oíṫe*, or *uíṫe*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *ppealabóip*, a mower; *pealḡaip*, a hunter; *ceiṫcapnaṫ*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns*; *pḡéalaíṫe* or *pḡéuluíṫe*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *án* and abstracts in *ap*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cáipḃeap*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1.) Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *ceapc*, a hen; *Cipe*, Ireland; *ḃeapḃa*, the Barrow; *pláirḡ*, a plague.

(2.) Diminutives in *óg*, and derivatives in *aṫṫ* as *puipeóg*, a lark; *cuiṫpaṫṫ*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as *ḃaílle*, blindness.

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in *óip*); as *púil*, the eye; *pógluim*, learning

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation:—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of *bpadán*, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. *bpadám*, as *trí bpadám*, three salmon; gen. *bpadán*, as *loé na m-bpadán*, the lake of the salmon; dat. *bpadánaib*, as *do na bpadánaib*, to the salmon; voc. *bpadána*, as *a bpadána*, *ca b-puill pib aó dul?* “O ye salmon, whither are ye going?”

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom. *bpadán*; gen. *bpadán*; dat. *bpadán*; voc. *bpadám*; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative.

and the ablative the same as the dative ; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case ; thus the datives singular of *cop*, a foot, and *boi*, a bush, are different, namely, *coip* and *boi*. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns ; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience ; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive ; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *ball*, a member or limb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.* ball.	Nom. baill.
Gen. baill.	Gen. ball.
Dat. ball.	Dat. ballaib̃.
Voc. a baill.	Voc. a balla.

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in *ac̃*, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in *ac̃*, in addition to the attenuation, change *ċ* into *ġ* in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding *e* to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in *ib̃*, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, *mapcaċ*, a horseman.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mapcaċ.	Nom. mapcaġe.
Gen. mapcaġ.	Gen. mapcaċ.
Dat. mapcaċ.	Dat. mapcaġib̃.
Voc. a mapcaġ.	Voc. a mapcaċa.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in *a*; as *peann*, a pen; plur. *peanna*: and some of these are syncopated, as *uċall*, an apple; plur. *uċla*.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding *ta* or *ċa* to the nominative singular; as *peól*, a sail; nom. plur. *peóлта*; dat. plur. *peóлтаib̃*: *múr*, a wall; nom. plur. *múrċa*; dat. plur. *múrċaib̃*.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, *copp*, a body; gen. *cupp*: *iarġ*, a fish; gen. *éirġ*:

*It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "nominative and accusative" all through the declensions.

neapt, strength; gen. neipt or nipt: peap, a man; gen. pɪp: cpann, a tree; gen. cpomn: béal, a mouth; gen. béil or beoil.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in *ib*.

This *ib* corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced, but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle *a* or *O*, which aspirates the initial; as *a pɪp*, *O man*; *a mɪná*, *O women*; *O éígeapna*, *O Lord*.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *e* to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final *e*.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding *a*; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example, *peampóġ*, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>peampóġ</i> .	Nom. <i>peampóġa</i> .
Gen. <i>peampóġe</i> .	Gen. <i>peampóġ</i> .
Dat. <i>peampóġ</i> .	Dat. <i>peampóġaib</i> .

Second example, *péirt*, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>péirt</i> .	Nom. <i>péirte</i> .
Gen. <i>péirte</i> .	Gen. <i>péirt</i> .
Dat. <i>péirt</i> .	Dat. <i>péirtaib</i> .

7. Nouns in *ac*, when they belong to this declension, change the *c* to *ġ* in the genitive singular: thus, *cláirpeac*, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cláirpeac</i> .	Nom. <i>cláirpeaca</i> .
Gen. <i>cláirpġe</i> .	Gen. <i>cláirpeac</i> .
Dat. <i>cláirpġ</i> .	Dat. <i>cláirpeacaib</i> .

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna*; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final *a* of this termination; thus, *cúip*, a cause; nom. plural *cúipeanna*; gen. plural, *cúipeann*; dat. plural, *cúipeannaib*.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding *aca*: thus, *obair*, a work, and *opáid*, a prayer, make *oibpeaca* and *opáideaca* in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as *puam*, a sound; gen. plural *puam*.

12. When the nominative plural takes *te*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *aö*; as *coill*, a wood; nom. plur. *coillte*; and genitive plural as

seen in Oileán na g-coillteadh, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *a* to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *a* or *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, cleap, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cleap.	Nom. cleapa.
Gen. cleapa.	Gen. cleap.
Dat. cleap.	Dat. cleapaib.

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.; as *toil*, the will, gen. *cola*.

7. Sometimes *τ* or *ć* is introduced before the *a* of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as *cobail*, sleep; gen. *cobałta*: *buařipt*, trouble, gen. *buařeapća*.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in *ađ*, *eađ*, and *uđađ*, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not a; as molað, praising; gen. molta: ríneað stretching; gen. rínce: caoluḡað, making slender; gen. caoluiḡce.

9. Nouns in aét generally, and those in eap or iop, often, belong to this declension; as clípteacét, dexterity; gen. clípteacéta: doilḡiop, sorrow; gen. doilḡiopa. But the greater number of those in eap or iop belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, doilḡiop, is often made doilḡip in the genitive; and bponnṭanap, a gift, makes bponnṭanap.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in ip), which form their genitive singular in ac, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caṭap, a city; gen. caṭpac: Teamṭap, Tara, gen. Teamṭpac: ḡpám, hatred; gen. ḡpánaç.

11. Those in ip generally form their genitive as above; but aṭap, a father; máṭap, a mother; and bpáṭap, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final i:—gen. aṭap, máṭap, bpáṭap.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in óip generally make the nominative plural by adding iðe; as rpealaðóip, a mower, nom. plur. rpealaðóipiðe.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na rpealaðóipið, but sometimes na rpealaðóip or na rpealaðópac.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as rpuṭ, a stream; gen. rpoṭa; nom. pl. rpoṭa or rpoṭanna: ḡpum, a baek; gen. ḡpoma; nom. plur. ḡpoma or ḡpomanna.

16. Those that add *nna*, form the genitive plural by omitting the *a*; as *ppuē*; gen. plur. *ppučann*.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in *n* or *l*, form their plural by adding *te* or *ta*; as *móin*, a bog; gen. sing. *móna*; nom. plur. *móinte*.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding *að* to the nominative plural; as *móin*; gen. plur. *móinteað*.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in *ac* (10) form the plural by adding *a* to this *ac*: as *lappa*, a flame; gen. sing. *lappaç*; nom. plur. *lappaça*.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in *ín*, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *iðe* or *aða* (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, *áinne*, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>áinne</i> .	Nom. <i>áinniðe</i> .
Gen. <i>áinne</i> .	Gen. <i>áinneað</i> .
Dat. <i>áinne</i> .	Dat. <i>áinniðib</i> .

4. Some form the plural by adding *te* or *çe*: as *teinne*, a fire; nom. plur. *teinnute*: *ðaoi*, a clown; nom. plur. *ðaoiçe*; and *aíne*, a commandment, has nom. plur. *aíteanta*.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding *ð* or *að* (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. *ðaoiçe*, clowns; gen. plur. *ðaoiçeað*.

6. Nouns ending in *aíðe*, *uiðe*, and *aípe*, generally belong to this declension; as *pclábuíðe*, a slave; *píobaípe*, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding *n* or *nn*, and occasionally *o* or *u*.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding *a*.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular. Example, *uppa*, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>uppa</i> .	Nom. <i>uppana</i> .
Gen. <i>uppan</i> .	Gen. <i>uppan</i> .
Dat. <i>uppan</i> .	Dat. <i>uppanaib</i> .

6. To this declension belong the proper names *Eipe*, Ireland; gen. *Eipeann*, dat. *Eipinn*: *Alba*, Scotland; gen., *Alban*, dat. *Alban*: *Muma*, Munster; gen. *Muinan*, dat. *Muinain*; and several others of less note.

7. *Capa*, a friend, is an example of the genitive in *o*: nom. *capa*; gen. *capao*; dat. *capaib*; nom. plur. *cáipde*.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are: *—*bean*, a woman; *bó*, a cow; *bpu*, a womb;

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

caopa, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a hound; Dia, God; lá, a day; mí, a month; o or ua, a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The vocative is not given where it is like the nominative.)

bean, a woman, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. bean.	Nom. mná.
Gen. mná.	Gen. ban.
Dat. mnaoi.	Dat. mnáib.

bó, a cow, fem.

Nom. bó.	Nom. bá
Gen. bó.	Gen. bó.
Dat. buin.	Dat. búaiḃ.

bprú, a womb, fem.

Nom. bprú.	Nom. bpronna.
Gen. bprumne or bpronn.	Gen. bpronn.
Dat. bpronn.	Dat. bpronnaib.

Caopa, a sheep, fem.

Nom. caopa.	Nom. caoiriḡ.
Gen. caopaé.	Gen. caopaé.
Dat. caopa.	Dat. caopéaiḃ.
Voc. a éaopa.	Voc. a éaopéa.

Ceó, a fog, masc.

Nom. ceó.	Nom. ciað.
Gen. ciaé or ceoiḡ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó.	Dat. ceóéaiḃ.

Cnó or cnú, a nut, masc.

Nom. cnó.	Nom. cná, cnai.
Gen. cnó, cnui.	Gen. cnóð.
Dat. cnó, cnú.	Dat. cnáib.

Cú, a hound, masc. or fem.

Nom. cú.	Nom. com, cuin, cona, or coince.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. coin.	Dat. conaib.

Dia, God, masc.

Nom. Dia.	Nom. Déce, Déíte.
Gen. Dé.	Gen. Dia, Déítead.
Dat. Dia.	Dat. Déib Déíteib.
Voc. a Dhé or a Dhia.	Voc. a Dhée, Dhéíte.

Lá, a day, masc.

Nom. lá.	Nom. laeete.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeetead, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laeetib.

Mí, a month, fem.

Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. mír, míora.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mí, mír.	Dat. míoraib.

O or ua, a grandson, masc.

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uf.
Gen. í, uf.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. ib, uib.
Voc. a, uf.	Voc. a, uf.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE
WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with *p*.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18) that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colg, a sword, masc. Nom. an colg; gen. an éuilg; dat. leip an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 17), or do'n colg (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Cailleac, a hag, fem. Nom. an cailleac; na caillige; dat. ó'n g-caillig or do'n caillig.

6. Saoḡal, the world, masc. Nom. an raoḡal; gen. an τ-raoḡail; dat. ó'n raoḡal or do'n τ-raoḡal (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabóir, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. an τ-Sabóir; gen. na Sabóir; dat. ó'n Sabóir or do'n τ-Sabóir (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an τ-plat; gen. na plaite; dat. leip an plat or do'n τ-plat.

9. Spól, satin, masc. Nom. an ppól; gen. an τ-ppól; dat. ó'n ppól or do'n τ-ppól.

10. Apal, an ass, masc. Nom. an τ-apal; gen. an apail; dat. ó'n apal.

11. Inip, an island, fem. Nom. an inip; gen. na h-inpe; dat. do'n inip.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. do'n leic (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. Óile, a deluge, fem. Nom. an óile; gen. na óileann; dat. do'n óilinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an pgeul; gen. an pgeíl; dat. ó'n pgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an ppeal; gen. na ppeile; dat. leip an ppeil.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection *ib* in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as *bán*, white; *pluic*, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of *ball*, except that the nominative plural always ends in *a*.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of *peampóg*.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, *bán*, white.

Singular.			Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.	
Nom.	bán.	bán.	Nom. bána.	
Gen.	bám.	bámé.	Gen. bán.	
Dat.	bán.	bám.	Dat. bána.	
Voc.	bám.	bán.	Voc. bána.	

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes *e*.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding *e*; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example, *mín*, smooth, fine.

Singular.			Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.	
Nom.	mín.	mín.	Nom. míne.	
Gen.	mín.	míne.	Gen. mín.	
Dat.	mín.	mín	Dat. míne.	
Voc.	mín.	mín.	Voc. míne.	

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in *aíuail*, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—*bean*, a woman *banamáil*, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding *a*, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, *maípeamáil*, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maíreamail.	Nom. maíreamla.
Gen. maíreamla.	Gen. maíreamail.
Dat. maíreamail.	Dat. maíreamla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as mópōa, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that *o* and *τ* sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in *n*. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes *n* if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaill bána.
Gen. an écapaill bán.	na ḡ-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n ḡ-capall bán or m-bán.	ó'na capallaib bána.
Voc. a écapaill bán.	a écapalla bána.

An *fuireódg* *beaḡ*, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. an <i>fuireódg</i> <i>beaḡ</i> .	na <i>fuireódga</i> <i>beaḡa</i> .
Gen. na <i>fuireóḡe</i> <i>bḡe</i> .	na <i>b-fuiredḡ</i> <i>m-beaḡ</i> .
Dat. ó'n <i>b-fuireoig</i> <i>bḡ</i> .	ó'na <i>fuireóḡaib</i> <i>beaḡa</i> .
Voc. a <i>fuireódg</i> <i>beaḡ</i> .	a <i>fuireódga</i> <i>beaḡa</i> .

An *cnoc árḃ*, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. an <i>cnoc árḃ</i> .	Nom. na <i>cnuic árḃa</i> .
Gen. an <i>cnuisc árḃ</i> .	Gen. na <i>ḡ-cnoc n-árḃ</i> .
Dat. o'n <i>ḡ-cnoc árḃ</i> .	Dat. ó'na <i>cnocaiḃ árḃa</i> .
Voc. a <i>cnuic árḃ</i> .	Voc. a <i>cnoca árḃa</i> .

An *bó duḃ*, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. an <i>bó duḃ</i> .	Nom. na <i>bá duḃa</i> .
Gen. na <i>bó duibc</i> .	Gen. na <i>m-bó n-duḃ</i> .
Dat. do'n <i>m-buin duib</i> .	Dat. do na <i>búaiḃ duḃa</i> .
Voc. a <i>bó duḃ</i> .	Voc. a <i>bá duḃa</i> .

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as *árḃ*, high; *plaiceamail*, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as *áirde*, *plaiceamla*; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle *níor* (or *níora* or *níra*) prefixed, and it is usually followed by *ná*, than (spelled also *iná* and *ioná*); as *rá an t-eac̃ ro níor áirde ná an t-eac̃ rin*,

this house is higher than that house : *atá an laoc úo níor plaičeamla ná an níğ péin*, “yonder champion is more princely than the king himself.”

5. The superlative is often preceded by *ip* or *ap*, with the article expressed before the noun ; as *an peap ip plaičeamla pan típ*, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, *níor* is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb *ip* in any of its forms, expressed or understood ; as *ba òuibé a ġruağ ná an ġual*, “her hair was blacker than the coal ;” *ip ġile pneac̃ta ná bainne*, snow is whiter than milk ; *an peápp do ðeap̃pačair ná éúra ?* is thy brother better than thou ?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative ; as *an ealaðan ip uairle ná pil̃ðeačt*, the art which is nobler than poetry ; *an ealaðan ip uairle air bič*, “the art which is the noblest in the world.”

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected ; all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice.

2. *lúa* is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number) ; but it has no positive, unless *iom̃a* or *mópán* (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaḡ, little.	n̄sor luḡa.	īr luḡa.
faḡa, long.	n̄sor faḡde, n̄sor rīa.	īr faḡde, īr rīa.
fupur or upur, easy.	n̄sor fupā, n̄sor upā.	īr fupā, īr upā.
maīḡ, } good.	n̄sor feārr.	īr feārr.
deāḡ, }		
mīnīc, often.	n̄sor mīnīca.	
mōr, great.	n̄sor mō.	īr mō.
olc, bad.	n̄sor meapā.	īr meapā.
ceīḡ, hot.	n̄sor ceō.	īr ceō.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, f̄sor, rō, rār, ūr: as maīḡ, good; an-maīḡ, very good: ḡrānna, ugly; f̄sor-ḡrānna, excessively ugly: mōr, large; rō-mōr, very large: lāīḡur, strong; rār-lāīḡur, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
1. aon.	1st. óeāḡ.
2. ḡó, ḡá.	2nd. ḡapā.
3. t̄rī, ceōra.	3rd. t̄reap.
4. ceat̄ar, ceīḡe.	4th. ceat̄raīmaḡ.
5. cúḡ.	5th. cúḡeāḡ.
6. rē.	6th. rēīreāḡ.
7. reaḡt̄.	7th. reaḡt̄raīmaḡ.
8. oḡt̄.	8th. oḡt̄raīmaḡ.
9. naol.	9th. naolmaḡ.
10. deīḡ.	10th. deaḡraīmaḡ.
11. aon deāḡ.	11th. aonmaḡ deāḡ.

12.	ծոճեաց, ծոճեաց.	12th.	ծարս ճեաց.
13.	երի ճեաց. And so on, up to and including 19.	13th.	երթար ճեաց.
20.	բիւն.	20th.	բիւնած.
21.	{ առ ա'ր բիւն, առ ար բիւն, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	{ առնիած ար բիւն.
30.	{ արիւնած, արիւն, ճիւն ա'ր բիւն.	30th.	{ արիւնածած, ճիւնած ար բիւն.
33.	{ արի ար արիւնած, երի ճեաց ա'ր բիւն.	33rd.	{ արթար ար արիւն- ած, արթար ճեաց ար բիւն.
40.	{ ծոճ բիւն, ճիւն- թիւն, ճիւնթիւ- ն.	40th.	ճիւնթիւնած.
50.	ճիւն, ճիւն.	50th.	ճիւնած.
60.	{ արթիւն, արթիւն, երի բիւն.	60th.	{ արթիւնած, ար բիւնած.
70.	{ արճիւն, արճիւն, թիւն, ճիւն ա'ր երի բիւն.	70th.	{ արճիւնած, ար թիւնած, ար բիւն.
80.	{ ճիւն, ճիւն, ճիւն թիւն.	80th.	{ ճիւնած, ճիւն- թիւնած, ար բիւն.
90.	{ ճիւն, ճիւն, ճիւն թիւն.	90th.	{ ճիւնած, ճիւն- թիւնած, ար բիւն.
100.	ճիւն.	100th.	ճիւնած.
1,000.	միլ.	1,000th.	միլիւն.
2,000.	ծոճ միլ.	2,000th.	ծոճ միլիւն.
1,000,000.	միլիւն.	1,000,000th.	միլիւնած.

2. **Ծոճ** and **ճիւն** are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but **ծոճ** and **ճիւն** are always used when the nouns are expressed; as **ծոճ ճիւն**, two ears; **ճիւն բիւն**, four men.

3. **Բիւն** is declined :—Nom. **բիւն**; gen. **բիւնած**; dat. **բիւն**; nom. plur. **բիւն**.

4. **ճիւն** has gen. **ճիւն**; nom. pl. **ճիւն** or **ճիւն**.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beipɾ, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

ḍiap, ḍip, two persons.	peačɾap,	} seven persons.
beipɾ, a couple.	mór-peipeap,	
ɾpiúr, three persons.	očɾap,	eight „
ceačɾap, four „	nonḃap, naonḃap,	nine „
cúigeap, five „	deiōneabap,	ten „
peipeap, six „		

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns :—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I, tú, thou ; sé, he ; sí, she ; with their plurals, sinn, we ; sib, ye or you ; and siad, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self* ; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms :—Mípe or mepi, myself ; túpa, thyself ; pérean,

himself; *pipe*, herself; *pinne*, ourselves; *piðpe*, yourselves; *piabpan*, themselves.

4. The word *pén*, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:—*mé pén*, I myself; *pi pén*, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except *mé*), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun *tú* that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of *mé* is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to *caol le caol* &c.

mé, I.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>mé, I.</i>	Nom. <i>pinne</i> , we.
Gen. <i>mo</i> , mine.	Gen. <i>áp</i> , our.
Dat. <i>ðom</i> , <i>ðam</i> , to me.	Dat. <i>ðúinn</i> , to us.
Acc. <i>mé</i> , me.	Acc. <i>inn</i> or <i>pinne</i> , us.

Mipe, myself (emphatic form).

Nom. <i>mipe</i> , <i>mepi</i> , myself.	Nom. <i>pinne</i> , ourselves.
Gen. <i>mo-pa</i> , my own.	Gen. <i>áp-ne</i> , our own.
Dat. <i>ðompa</i> , <i>ðam-pa</i> , to myself.	Dat. <i>ðúinne</i> , to ourselves
Acc. <i>mipe</i> , <i>mepi</i> , myself.	Acc. <i>inne</i> , <i>pinne</i> , ourselves.

Tú, thou.

Nom. <i>tú</i> .	Nom. <i>pið</i> .
Gen. <i>ðo</i> .	Gen. <i>ðup</i> , <i>ðap</i> .
Dat. <i>ðuit</i> .	Dat. <i>ðaoið</i> , <i>ðið</i> .
Acc. <i>tú</i> .	Acc. <i>ið</i> , <i>pið</i> .
Voc. <i>tú</i> .	Voc. <i>pið</i> , <i>ið</i> .

Sé, *he*.

Nom. *pé*.
 Gen. *a*.
 Dat. *do*.
 Acc. *é*.

Nom. *píad*.
 Gen. *a*.
 Dat. *doib*.
 Acc. *iad*.

Sí, *she*.

Nom. *pí*.
 Gen. *a*.
 Dat. *di*.
 Acc. *í*.

Nom. *píad*.
 Gen. *a*.
 Dat. *doib*.
 Acc. *iad*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
 PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These “prepositional pronouns,” as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—*a*g; *a*p or *a*p; *a*nn or *i*; *a*p; *c*um; *d*e; *d*o; *e*ibp or *i*bp; *p*á or *p*aoi; *l*e; *o* or *u*a; *p*oum; *p*eaé; *t*a; *t*pé; *u*a; *u*m or *i*m.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

Ag, at or with.

Singular.

agam, with or at me.
 agat, agad, with thee.
 aige, with him.
 aice or aici, with her.

Plural.

agann, with us.
 agaiB, with you.
 aca or acu, with them.

The same with the emphatic increase.

agampa, with myself.
 agatpa, with thyself.
 aigepan, with himself.
 aicipe, with herself.

aganne, with ourselves.
 agaiBpe, with yourselves.
 acapan, with themselves.

Aip or ap, upon.

oim, on me.
 oip, on thee.
 aip, on him.
 uipre, on her.

oipainn, on us.
 oipaiB, on you.
 oipa, oipca, on them.

Ann or i, in.

ionnam, in me.
 ionnat, ionnad, in thee.
 ann, in him.
 innce, innci, in her.

ionnainn, ionnainn, in us.
 ionnaiB, in you.
 ionnta, in them.

Ap, out of.

apam, out of me.
 apat, apad, out of thee.
 ap, out of him.
 aipce, aipci, out of her.

apainn, out of us.
 apaiB, out of you.
 apta, aptu, out of them.

Ūm, towards, unto.

ūgam, unto me.
 ūgat, unto thee.
 ūige, unto him.
 ūici, unto her.

ūgann, unto us.
 ūgaiB, unto you.
 ūuca, unto them.

Ūe, from or off.

ūiom, off or of me.
 ūioi, off thee.
 ūe, off him.
 ūi, off her.

ūinn, off us.
 ūiB, off you.
 ūioB, off them.

Ōo, *to*.

ōam, ōom, ōam̄, to me.
 ōuit, to thee.
 ōo, to him.
 ōi, to her.

ōūinn, to us.
 ōaōiḅ, ōiḅ, to you.
 ōōiḅ, to them.

Eiḅip, *between*.

eaḅpam, between me.
 eaḅpaṣ, between thee.
 eiḅip é, between him.
 eiḅip í, between her.

eaḅpamn, between us.
 eaḅpaiḅ, between you.
 eaṣoppa, between them.

Pá or Paoi, *under*.

púm, under me.
 púṣ, under thee.
 paoi, under him.
 púṣe, under her.

púinn, under us.
 púiḅ, under you.
 púṣa, under them.

Le, *with*.

liom, with me.
 leaṣ, with thee.
 leiṣ, with him.
 léiṣe, léi, with her.

linn, with us.
 liḅ, with you.
 leó, with them.

Le is often written *pe* in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows :—

piom, with me.
 pioṣ, with thee.
 pip, with him.
 pia, with her.

pinn, with us.
 piḅ, with you.
 piu, with them.

O or ua, *from*.

uam, from me.
 uaiṣ, from thee.
 uaḅ, from him.
 uaiṣe, uaiṣi, from her.

uamn, from us.
 uaiḅ, from you.
 uaṣa, from them.

Roim̄, *before*.

róimam, before me.
 róimaṣ, before thee.
 róime, before him.
 róimpe, róimpi, before her.

róimamn, before us.
 róimaiḅ, before you.
 róimpa, before them.

Seac, *beside*.

peac̄am, beside me.
 peac̄ac̄, beside thee.
 peac̄ é, beside him.
 peac̄ í, beside her.

peac̄amn, beside us.
 peac̄aiḃ, beside you.
 peac̄a, beside them.

Tap, *beyond, over*.

et̄orm, et̄apm, over me.
 et̄or̄c̄, et̄ar̄c̄, over thee.
 et̄air̄p̄, over him.
 et̄air̄p̄ce, et̄air̄p̄i, over her.

et̄or̄p̄amn, et̄ar̄p̄amn, over us.
 et̄or̄paiḃ, et̄ar̄paiḃ, over you.
 et̄ar̄p̄ta, et̄ar̄p̄a, over them.

Tpe, *through*.

et̄is̄om, through me.
 et̄is̄ot̄, through thee.
 et̄is̄ḃ, through him.
 et̄is̄t̄e, et̄is̄t̄i, through her.

et̄is̄inn, through us.
 et̄is̄ḃ, through you.
 et̄is̄ot̄a, through them.

Uap, *above*.

uap̄am, above me.
 uap̄ac̄, above thee.
 uap̄a, above him.
 uap̄t̄e, uap̄t̄i, above her.

uap̄amn, above us.
 uap̄aiḃ, above you.
 uap̄ta, above them.

Um or im, *about*.

um̄am, about me.
 um̄ac̄, about thee.
 um̄e, about him.
 um̄pe, um̄p̄i, about her.

um̄amn, about us.
 um̄aiḃ, about you.
 ump̄a, about them.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; ðo, thy; a, his or her; ár, our; ðap or ðup, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12 ; and see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *mo* and *do* is omitted before a vowel or before *p̃*; as *m'áčair*, my father; *m'p̃earann*, my land. And *do* is often changed, before a vowel, to *ɛ*, *é*, and *h*; as *ɛ'áčair*, *é'áčair*, or *h-áčair*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *mo éac-pa*, my house, or my own house; *mo éac mór buíde-rí*, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *p̃éin* (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *mo éac-pa p̃éin*, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *beip beannaɛɛ óm époíde*, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ann, in.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>am, am', in my.</i>	<i>ináp, 'náp, in our.</i>
<i>að, að', in thy.</i>	—
<i>iona, ina, 'na, in his or her.</i>	<i>iona, ina, 'na, in their.</i>

Do, to.

<i>dom, dom', to my.</i>	<i>dáp, d'áp, to our.</i>
<i>dob, dob', to thy.</i>	—
<i>dá, da, to his or her.</i>	<i>dá, d'a, to their.</i>

le, with.

lem, lem', with my.

lep, le'p, with our

leò, leò', with thy.

lena, le n-a, with his or her. lena, le n-a, with their,

O or ua from.

óm, óm', from my.

oáp, ó'p, from our.

óò, óò', from thy.

óna, ó n-a, from his or her.

óna, o n-a, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna éig, from his house; óna tig, from her house; óna ò-tig, from their house:

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm éig móp árb-*pa*, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—*a*, who, which, that; *noè*, who, which, that; *naè*, which not; as an *té a buaileap*, the person who strikes; an *laig noè a beip go b-puil tú plán*, the physician that says that you are well; an *té naè b-puil láirip, ní fuláirip dó beicé glie*, “the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise.”

2. *Dá* sometimes takes the place of the relative *a*; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as *táib na gaolta ip feárrp agum dá b-puil a b-talam Epeann*, “I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes *do* stands for the relative *a*.

3. The relative *a* has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as *beip beannaçt cum a maiceann òe òlpaic lpa'p Eibip*, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" *a b-puil pan talam ò'aime Mháine*, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Máine."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *po*, this, these; *pin*, that, those; *púb* or *úb*, yonder: as *an fear po*, this man; *na mná pin*, those women; *púb í síor*, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—*cia* or *cé*, who? *cá*, what? where? *cad* or *cneud*, what? as *cia ópuçuiç éú?* who created thee? *cad òeip tú?* what sayest thou? *ca b-puil an fear pin?* where is that man? *cneud ip éiçin?* what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.
éiçin, some, certain.
eile, *oile*, other.
cáç, all.
çac, each, every.
çac uile, every.

ceaçtar, either.
uile, all.
a céile, each other.
an té, *an tí*, the person who.
cia b'é, *cibé*, *çibé*, whoever.

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined ; except *cáic*, which has a genitive form, *cáic* ; and *ḡac*, which is sometimes made *ḡaca* in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS : SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural ; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb *ṭóg*, take, are as follows :—

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>ṭógam</i> , I take.	1. <i>ṭógamaoib</i> , we take.
2. <i>ṭógair</i> , thou takest.	2. <i>ṭógtaoi</i> , ye take.
3. <i>ṭógairé</i> , he takes.	3. <i>ṭóguib</i> , they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations:

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\upsilon$, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest;" and so of the others.

5: But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\mu\acute{\epsilon}$, I take.	1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\nu\eta$, we take.
2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou takest.	2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\beta$, ye take.
3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he takes.	3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\alpha\delta$, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say *déanam mé* or *déanamaoib pinn*, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as *molaoib píao* and *molpaob píao*—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though *molaoib* or *molpaob* alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as *tríallaoib mic Míleaob*, “the sons of Milé go;” *map do éoncaobap na drúaoite*, “when the druids saw.”

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39); as *molaim-pe*, I praise; *molap-pe*, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word *péin* (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as *do éuippinn-pe péin mo leanb a éoolao*, “I myself would put my child to sleep.”

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection *ib* is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *ḡoir*, call, are:—

(1.) The present; *ḡoirim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *ḡoirpeann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *ḡoirpear*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *ḡoirinn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *ḡoirpeadh*, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buaíl, *strike*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. buaílímís, let us strike.
2. buaíl, strike thou.	2. buaílíö, strike ye.
3. buaíleäó pé, let him strike.	3. buaílíöís, let them strike.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buaílím, I strike.	1. buaílímíö, we strike.
2. buaílíp, thou strikest.	2. buaílící, ye strike.
3. buaílíö pé, he strikes.	3. buaílíö, they strike.

(*For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.*)

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaíleann mé, *I usually strike.*

(*The same form for all persons and numbers.*)

Past.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. bualeap, I struck. | 1. bualeamap, we struck. |
| 2. buailip, thou struckest. | 2. bualeabap, ye struck. |
| 3. buail pé, he struck. | 3. bualeabap, they struck. |

Old form of Past.

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| 1. bualeap. | 1. buailpeam or buailpiom. |
| 2. buailip. | 2. bualeabap. |
| 3. bualeapcap. | 3. buailpeað, or buailpiob,
or buailpeabap. |

Consuetudinal Past

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. buailinn, I used to strike. | 1. buailinnip, we used to strike. |
| 2. buailceá, thou usedst to strike. | 2. buailcái, ye used to strike. |
| 3. bualeað pé, he used to strike. | 3. buailiðip, they used to strike. |

Future.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. buailpeað, I will strike. | 1. buailpimfo, we will strike. |
| 2. buailpip, thou wilt strike. | 2. buailpið, ye will strike. |
| 3. buailpið pé, he will strike. | 3. buailpið, they will strike. |

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. buailpinn, I would strike. | 1. buailpinnip, we would strike. |
| 2. buailpeá, thou wouldst strike. | 2. buailpið, ye would strike. |
| 3. buailpeað pé, he would strike. | 3. buailpiðip, they would strike. |

INF. MOOD. Ɔo bualað, to strike. PART. Aꝑ bualað, striking.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. buailteap mé, I am struck.
2. buailteap tú, thou art struck.
3. buailteap é, he is struck.

Plural.

1. buailteap sinn or inn, we are struck.
2. buailteap sib or ib, ye are struck.
3. buailteap iad, they are struck.

Consuetudinal Present.

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

Past.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. buaileadh mé, I was struck. | 1. buaileadh sinn or inn, we were struck. |
| 2. buaileadh tú, thou wast struck. | 2. buaileadh sib or ib, ye were struck. |
| 3. buaileadh é, he was struck. | 3. buaileadh iad, they were struck. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. buailte mé, I used to be struck. | 1. buailte sinn or inn, we used to be struck. |
| 2. buailte tú, thou usedst to be struck. | 2. buailte sib or ib, ye used to be struck. |
| 3. buailte é, he used to be struck. | 3. buailte iad, they used to be struck. |

Future.

Singular.

1. buailpeap mé, I shall or will be struck.
2. buailpeap tú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.
3. buailpeap é, he shall or will be struck.

Plural.

1. buailpeap sinn or inn, we shall or will be struck.
2. buailpeap sib or ib, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buailpeap iad, they shall or will be struck.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. buailpíde mé, I would be struck. | 1. buailpíde sinn or inn, we would be struck. |
| 2. buailpíde tú, thou wouldst be struck. | 2. buailpíde sib or ib, ye would be struck. |
| 3. buailpíde é, he would be struck. | 3. buailpíde iad, they would be struck. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beic buailte, to be struck.

PARTICIPLE.

Buailte, struck.

IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., ap, ip, eap, or iop.

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by an *cé a gairíod* (3rd sing. form), but by an *cé a gairpeap*; and "he who will steal," is not an *ce a gairíod* (3rd sing. form), but an *cé a gairpeap*. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," i.e., the present tense used for the past; as *fiappaigeap Ainmrigin a h-ainim òi*, "*Amergin asks her name of her.*" (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, *Ip móp an t-iongna liompa, naé ò'Oirín iappap Pionn mipe*, "*It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisín Finn seeks (iappap) me.*"

V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of *buaíl* (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60: See also Par. 8, p. 63.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations *im* (or *aím*), *ip* (or *aip*), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, *Óala lé, iomoppo, ollmúgčear long leip*, “as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him” (instead of *ollmúgčeað, was prepared*).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as *nočtap Eipemón dóib*, “Eremon reveals to them.”

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as *léiğeanm mé*, I am in the habit of reading; *léiğeað pé*, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, “I write always after breakfast,” and “he sold bread in his youth,” the verbs “write” and “sold” are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

consonant is generally aspirated; as *do* *ḡoiribís*, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations: thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as *do* *féapap*, I stood; *po* *éóblaip*, thou sleepest; *do* *molaö iad*, they were praised; *po* *buaileað é*, he was struck.

4. The particle *po*, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the *p* only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) *Ap*, whether? from *an* and *po*; as *ap* *buail ré*, did he strike?

(2.) *Ḥup*, that, from *ḡo* and *po*; as *ceiríom Ḥup* *buail ré*, I believe that he struck.

(3.) *Munap*, unless, from *muna* and *po*; as *munap* *buail ré*, unless he struck.

(4.) *Naçap*, or *na'p*, or *náp*, whether not? from *naç* and *po*; as *náp* *buail ré*, did not he strike?

(5.) Níop, not, from ní and po; as níop buail pé, he did not strike.*

6. The particle po, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun a; as an fear d'ap gceallap mo leabap, the man to whom I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter p, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like h; thus dúnpad, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle do, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as do fhubálpáinn, I would walk.

2. But very often also dá, if, or muna, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as dá b-paḡáinn-pe mo poḡa, "if I would get my choice;" muna m-beirḡeao pé, "unless he would be."

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with p.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle do or a be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for *a*, his; *mo*, my; *do*, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as *dǎ ḡonaö*, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); *do m'ḡonaö*, to wound me; *do v'ḡonaö*, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by *a*, her; as *dǎ ḡonaö*, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as *dǎp n-ḡonaö*, to wound us; *do bǔp n-ḡonaö* to wound you; *dǎ n-ḡonaö*, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding *aö* or *eaö*, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by *i* as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the *i*); as *buail*, *buaiaö*; *ḡom*, *ḡonaö*, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by *i* alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as *mill*, *mil-leaö*, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
éaḡ.	ḁ'éaḡ, to die.
ṛnám.	ḁo ṛnám, to swim.
ól.	ḁ'ól, to drink.
ṣappainḡ.	ḁo ṣappainḡ, to draw.
cup.	ḁo cúp, to put.
ḡol.	ḁo ḡol, to weep.
imip.	ḁ'imipṣ, to play.
mḡil.	ḁ'imḡilṣ, to graze.
ḁṣip.	ḁo ḁṣipṣ, to banish.
ceil.	ḁo ceilṣ, to conceal.
fáḡ.	ḁ' fáḡbáil, to leave.
ḡab.	ḁo ḡabáil, to take.
ṣóḡ.	ḁo ṣoḡbáil, to lift.
lean.	ḁo leanamam, to follow.
caill.	ḁo cáilleamam, to lose.
oil.	ḁ'oileamam, to nourish.
foill.	ḁ'foilleamam to suit.
ḡluap.	ḁo ḡluapaṣṣ, to move.
éipṣ.	ḁ'éipṣeaṣṣ, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as aḡ prefixed; as aḡ bualaḁ at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding *te* or *ṣe* when the last vowel of the root is slender, and *ta* or *ṣa*, when broad.

When the root ends in *ó*, *ó*, *l*, *ll*, *n*, *nn*, *r*, *ṣ*, or *ḡ* (except verbs in *uḡ* or *iḡ*), the *ṣ* of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in *uḡ* or *iḡ*, the *ṣ* is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations *ṣap* and *ṣí* follow the same law.

VI. VERBS IN *uiġ*, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in *uiġ*, or *iġ*, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in *il*, *in*, *ip*, and *ip*, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of *buail*.

3. In *buail*, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter *p* is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no *p* in the future and conditional, but they take instead, *eó*, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in *uiġ* and *iġ* change *ġ* into *c*; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the *ġ* retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and *buail*, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ip* and *ip* are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as *cobail*, *sleep*, *coblainn*,

* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in *uiḡ* almost always form their infinitive by dropping the *i* and adding the usual termination *að*; those in *iḡ* alone (not preceded by *u*), retain the *i* and take *u* after it in the infinitive: as *comapṭuiḡ*, mark; infinitive, *comapṭuḡað*; *comapliḡ*, advise; infinitive, *comapliuḡað*.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule *coal le caol* &c., which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as *buaíl* and *meall*.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
<i>Díriḡ</i> , direct.	<i>díriḡim</i> .	<i>dípeócað</i> .	<i>dípeócaimn</i> .
<i>ḡráðuuiḡ</i> , love.	<i>ḡráðuuiḡim</i> .	<i>ḡráiðeócað</i> .	<i>ḡráiðeócaimn</i> .
<i>laḃair</i> , speak.	<i>laḃraim</i> .	<i>laibheópað</i> .	<i>laibheópaimn</i> .
<i>ṭappuimḡ</i> , draw.	<i>ṭairnḡim</i> .	<i>ṭairpeónḡað</i> .	<i>ṭairpeónḡaimn</i> .
<i>forḡail</i> , open.	<i>forḡlaim</i> .	<i>forḡeólað</i> .	<i>forḡeólaimn</i> .
<i>coraim</i> , defend.	<i>cornam</i> .	<i>coipeónað</i> .	<i>coipeónaimn</i> .
<i>innir</i> , tell.	<i>innirim</i> .	<i>inneópað</i> .	<i>inneópaimn</i> .
<i>Díbir</i> , banish.	<i>díbirim</i> .	<i>díbeópað</i> .	<i>díbeópaimn</i> .

11. In Munster, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ir*, and *ur*, are conjugated like those in *uiḡ* or *iḡ*; and the *eó* comes *after* the final consonant: thus *díbir*, banish, is made in the future and conditional, *díbpeóḡað* and *díbpeóḡaimn*, as if the verb were *díbriḡ*.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in *uiḡ* (*árouiḡ*) is given at page 65

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. —		meall-amaoip	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
	2. meall		meall-að		
	3. meall-að ré		meall-aðip		
Pres. Tense.	1. meall-am		meall-amaoib	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\alpha\text{p} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\alpha\text{oi} \\ \text{meall-a}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pib, ib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$
	2. meall-aip		meall- $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\}$		
	3. meall-að ré		meall-að		
Consuet. Present.	1. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{ann} \end{array} \right\} \text{ré}$		meall-ann $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn} \\ \text{pib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$	Same form as the Present.	
	2. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{ann} \end{array} \right\}$				
	3. meall-pé				
Simple Past.	1. meall-ap		meall-amaip	meall-að	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pib, ib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$
	2. meall-aip		meall-aðap		
	3. meall-pé		meall-aðap		
Consuet. Past.	1. meall-ann		meall-amaoip	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\alpha\text{oi} \\ \text{meall-pap} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pib, ib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$
	2. meall-tá		meall- $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\}$		
	3. meall-að ré		meall-aðip		
Future.	1. meall-pað		meall-pamaoib	meall-pap	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pib, ib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$
	2. meall-paip		meall-pað		
	3. meall-pað ré		meall-pað		
Conditional Mood.	1. meall-pamn		meall-pamaoip	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-pa}\text{ðe} \\ \text{meall-pa}\text{ðe} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pib, ib} \\ \text{ia}\text{ð} \end{array} \right\}$
	2. meall-pá		meall-pað		
	3. meall-pað ré		meall-paðaip		
		Infinitive Mood, do meall-að.		Infinitive Mood, do beir meall-ta.	
		Participle, að meall-að.		Participle, meall-ta.	

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF ԳՐԾԱՅԻՃ, raise.

ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. —	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
	2. արծայձ		
	3. արծայձ-եօ ը		
Pres. Tense.	1. արծայձ-ում	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	<div><div>արծայձ շար</div><div>արծայձ շար</div><div>արծայձ շար</div></div>
	2. արծայձ-իր		
	3. արծայձ-ի ը		
Consuet. Present.	1. արծայձ-ում	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	Same form as the Present.
	2. արծայձ-իր		
	3. արծայձ-ի ը		
Simple Past.	1. արծայձ-եար	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	<div><div>արծայձ-եօ</div><div>արծայձ-եօ</div><div>արծայձ-եօ</div></div>
	2. արծայձ-իր		
	3. արծայձ ը		
Consuet. Past.	1. արծայձ-ում	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	<div><div>արծայձ-ի</div><div>արծայձ-ի</div><div>արծայձ-ի</div></div>
	2. արծայձ-եօ		
	3. արծայձ-եօ ը		
Future.	1. արծեօ-ւծ	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	<div><div>արծեօ-ար</div><div>արծեօ-ար</div><div>արծեօ-ար</div></div>
	2. արծեօ-ար		
	3. արծեօ-աւծ ը		
Conditional Mood.	1. արծեօ-ւծ	<div><div>մե</div><div>չ</div><div>ե</div></div>	<div><div>արծեօ-աւծ</div><div>արծեօ-աւծ</div><div>արծեօ-աւծ</div></div>
	2. արծեօ-ար		
	3. արծեօ-աւծ ը		
Infinitive Mood, Ծ'արծայձ.		Infinitive Mood, Ծօ երե արծայձե	
Participle, ած արծայձ		Participle, արծայձե	

VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), *ṭám*, I am; (2), the assertive verb *ip*; (3), *beipim*, I give; (4), *beipim*, I bear; (5), *ém*, I see (including *peicim*); (6), *clunim*, I hear; (7), *ḏéan-am*, I do; (8), *ḡnám* or *nám*, I do; (9), *beipim*, I say; (10), *paḡam* or *ḡeibim*, I find; (11), *ičim*, I eat; (12), *piḡim*, I reach; (13), *ṭéiðim*, I go; (14), *tiḡim*, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb *ip*, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, *ṭám*, is given.

(1.) *Ṭám*, *I am*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. | 1. <i>bímip</i> , let us be. |
| 2. <i>bí</i> , be thou. | 2. <i>bíðíð</i> , be ye. |
| 3. <i>bíðeað pé</i> , or <i>bíðá ré</i> ,
let him be. | 3. <i>bíðip</i> , let them be. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. τάμ, ατάμ, I am.
2. τάρ, ατάρ, thou art.
3. τά ρέ, ατά ρέ, he is.

Plural.

1. τάμαοιβ, ατάμαοιβ, we are.
2. τάταοι, ατάταοι, ye are.
3. τάιβ, ατάιβ, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. τά μέ, ατά μέ, I am: | 1. τά ριμν, ατά ριμν, we are. |
| 2. τά tú, ατά tú, thou art. | 2. τά ριβ, ατά ριβ, ye are. |
| 3. τά ρέ, ατά ρέ, he is. | 3. τά ριαδ, ατά ριαδ, they are. |

Consuetudinal Present.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. βίδμ, I am usually. | 1. βίμφο, βίδμφο, βίο-
μαοιβ, we are usually. |
| 2. βίδρ, thou art usually. | 2. βίτί, βίδτί, ye are usu-
ally. |
| 3. βίδεανν ρέ, or βίονν ρέ,
he is usually. | 3. βίδ. βίδρ, they are usu-
ally. |

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69.)

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. ní β-πιμ, I am not.* | 1. ní β-πιμφο, we are not. |
| 2. ní β-πιρ, thou art not. | 2. ní β-πιτί, ye are not. |
| 3. ní β-πιρ ρέ, he is not. | 3. ní β-πιρ, they are not. |

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the β-πι were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lm, ní'lp, ní'p ρέ, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. beidinn, I would be. | 1. beidmís, we would be. |
| 2. beidced, thou wouldst be. | 2. beidcís, ye would be. |
| 3. beideað pé, or beic pé,
he would be. | 3. beidís, they would be. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beic, *to be.*

PARTICIPLE.

að beic, *being.*

1. **Úá** is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (**b-puilim**), and a form in the past tense for the same (**paðar**). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms **b-puilim** and **paðar** are used only:—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as **ní b-puil pé cinn**, he is not sick; **ní pað mé ann rin**, I was not there: **an b-puil píon in bap longaið?** "Is there wine in your ships?" **An paðar að an ð-cappað?** "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? **O nað b-puil oul uaið aðam**, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); **an b-puil a píor aðar féin, a píninn?** **ní puil, ap píonn**, "'Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative **cionnar**, how?)

(b.) After *go*, that ; as *beipim go b-puil i'é plán*, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative *a* when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 3, page 47); as *ceud é an ppeaspa éabappap ap Oha, aḡ a b-puil piop do loct?* "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "*with whom* is a knowledge"); *a b-puil ó Ač-cliač go h-Oileán mór an bhappaig*, "*all that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;" *do beipmí ap m-briačap nač beaḡ linn a m-beupam go Fionn uiob*, "we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as *map an ḡ-céadna bíop* (or *bídeap*) *an báp an oipéill do píop ap an dume*; "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as *an piab tú aḡ an ḡ-Cappaig?* *Óo bíop aḡ an ḡ-Cappaig*, "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

6. The letter *a* is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: *ačá* instead of *čá*, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of buailteap mé, I am struck, we can say tá mé buailte: for do buaileadh mé, I was struck, do bí mé buailte, &c.

(2.) Ip, it is.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Ip, it is: as ip mé, it is I; ip tú, it is thou:

Past Tense.

bá or buð, it was; as bá mé, it was I.

Future Tense.

buð or bup, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

badh, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.

2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.

3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.

4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.

5. After sup, that, it is often made ab, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as cperiom sup ab é atá tinn, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: meapum dá péip rin, sup ab dá bhiaḡam aḡur píce pul puḡað Abrahám éámic Papéolón i n-Eipinn, "I think, according to that

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often *gup* *ab* is shortened by omitting the *a*; as *ceoidim gup 'bé*, &c.; and sometimes the *b* is joined to *gup*, as *ceoidim gupb é*, &c.

7. After *má*, if, the *i* is omitted, as *má'p p'íop é*. if it be true; and in this case the *p* is often joined to the *má*; as *má'p p'íop é*: *má'p maic leat a beic buan, caic puap agur teic*, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes *ba* or *ba* is shortened to *b* or *b* alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as *laoc 'd'ap b'ainm Lir*, or *laoc dapb ainm Lir*, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, *laoc do a po ba ainm Lir*, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, *pá*, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: *pá t'péanpéap an Ceat po*, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" *ip í (banba) pa bean do Mhac Coill, d'ap b'ainm díliop Eadúr*, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" *óp é an p'coitbéapla pá teanga coitcéann ran Scitia an t'páic do t'piall Neimheadh airde*, "since it is the Scotie language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between *ta* and *ip*, see Idioms.

* For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) bheirim, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tabramaoid.
2. tabair.	2. tabraid.
3. tabrad ré.	3. tabradaoid.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	bheirim, tabraim, or tugaim.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Pres. :</i>	bheireann.	
<i>Past :</i>	tugar.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	bheirinn, tugainn.	
<i>Future :</i>	béarrad, tabarrad.	
CONDITIONAL Mood :	béarrainn, tabarrainn.	

INFINITIVE ; do tabairt. PARTICIPLE ; ag tabairt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE ; bheirtear, tabarítear, tugítear, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	bheirítear, tugítear.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	tugadh.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	bheirííde, tugtaííde.	
<i>Future :</i>	béarrar, tabarrar.	
CONDITIONAL Mood :	béarrfaííde, tabarrfaííde.	

INFINITIVE ; do beir tabaríte, do beir tugíte.

PARTICIPLE ; tabaríte, tugíte.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, *beipim* (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle *do* (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(4.) *beipim*, *I bear*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. <i>beipimis</i> .
2. <i>beip</i> .	2. <i>beipsō</i> .
3. <i>beipeaō pē</i> .	3. <i>beipōis</i> .

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present</i> :	<i>beipim</i> .
<i>Consuet. Present</i> :	<i>beipeann</i> .
<i>Past</i> :	<i>puḡar</i> .
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	<i>beipinn</i> .
<i>Future</i> :	<i>béappab</i> .

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

CONDITIONAL MOOD: *béappaimn*.

INFINITIVE; *do bpeit*. PARTICIPLE; *aḡ bpeit*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; *beiptear mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	beip̃ceap.	}	mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	puḡað.		
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	beip̃c̃í.		
<i>Future :</i>	béap̃cap.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	béap̃cap̃aíðe.	}	

INFINITIVE; do beic beip̃ce. PARTICIPLE; beip̃ce.

(5.) Ćím, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. peicim̃p, peicim̃fo.
2. peic.	2. peic̃fo.
3. peiceað pé.	3. peic̃ioí.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ćíðim, ćím, peicim.	1. ćíðim̃fo, ćím̃fo, peicim̃fo
2. ćíðir. ćir, peicir.	2. ćíðc̃í, ćíc̃í, peic̃c̃í.
3. ćíðio pé, ćio pé, peic̃io pé.	3. ćíðio, ćio, peic̃io.

Consuet. Pres.; ćíðeann, peiceann, mé, tú, pé, &c.

Past.

1. ćonnapeap.	1. ćoncamap.
2. ćonnapeap.	2. ćoncabap.
3. ćonnape pé.	3. ćoncabap.

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	ćíðinn or ćinn.	}	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ćíðpeað or ćípeað.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ćíðpinn, or ćípinn, or peic̃pinn.		

INFINITIVE MOOD; ð'peic̃p̃in or ð'peic̃p̃iñc.

PARTICIPLE; aḡ peic̃p̃in or aḡ peic̃p̃iñc.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; ꝑeicċear, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense:</i>	ċíðtear or ꝑeicċear.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past:</i>	connapcað.	
<i>Past. Consuet.:</i>	ċíðċí or ꝑeicċí.	
<i>Future:</i>	ċíðþear or ꝑeicþear.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ċíðþiðe or ꝑeicþiðe.	}

INFINITIVE MOOD; ðo þeiċ ꝑeicċe. PARTICIPLE; ꝑeicċe

1. *Ċíðim* is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by *ꝑeicim* or *þaicim*, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—*connapcam*.

2. *ꝑeicim* or *þaicim*, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of *ċíðim*, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of *ċíðim* is *always* aspirated.

(6.) *Cluinim. I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. ċualap.	1. ċualamar.
2. ċualap.	2. ċualabap.
3. ċualað þé.	3. ċualabap.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; ðo ċloþ or ðo ċloþtim.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE; aḡ ċloþ or aḡ ċloþtim.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, *cluinim* is regular, and is conjugated like *buaib*.

(7.) *ḡéanam, I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 1. . . . | 1. <i>ḡéanam, ḡéanamaoir,</i>
<i>ḡéanamaoid.</i> |
| 2. <i>ḡéan.</i> | 2. <i>ḡéanaid.</i> |
| 3. <i>ḡéanað ré.</i> | 3. <i>ḡéanaidír.</i> |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>ḡḡneap, ḡéarnap, ḡéa-</i>
<i>nap.</i> | 1. <i>ḡḡneamar, ḡéarnamar,</i>
<i>ḡéanamar.</i> |
| 2. <i>ḡḡnir, ḡéarnair, ḡéa-</i>
<i>naip.</i> | 2. <i>ḡḡneabar, ḡéarnabar,</i>
<i>ḡéanabar.</i> |
| 3. <i>ḡḡne ré, ḡéarnað ré,</i>
<i>ḡéan ré.</i> | 3. <i>ḡḡneadar, ḡéarnadar,</i>
<i>ḡéanadar.</i> |

First Person Singular.

- | | | |
|-------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Present :</i> | <i>ḡéanam.</i> | } With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers. |
| <i>Consuet. Pres. :</i> | <i>ḡéanann.</i> | |
| <i>Consuet. Past :</i> | <i>ḡḡḡinn, ḡearnainn, ḡéa-</i>
<i>nainn.</i> | |
| <i>Future :</i> | <i>ḡéanfað.</i> | |

CONDITIONAL *ḡéanfainn.*
MOOD :

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *ḡo ḡéanam* or *ḡo ḡéanað.*PARTICIPLE ; *aḡ ḡéanam* or *aḡ ḡéanað.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; *ḡéantar mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Present :</i> | <i>ḡéantar.</i> | } <i>mé, tú, é, &c.</i> |
| <i>Past :</i> | <i>ḡḡneað, ḡéarnað.</i> | |
| <i>Consuet. Past :</i> | <i>ḡḡní.</i> | |
| <i>Future :</i> | <i>ḡéanfar.</i> | |
| CONDITIONAL | <i>ḡéanfaide.</i> | |
| MOOD : | | |

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *ḡo beid ḡéanta.* PARTICIPLE ; *ḡéanta.*

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) *Ḑnīm* or *nīm*, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present : *Ḑnīm* or *nīm*.*Past :* *Ḑnīðear* or *nīðear*.*Consuet. Past :* *Ḑnīðinn* or *nīðinn*.

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : *Ḑnīðear* or *nīðear*.*Consuet. Past :* *Ḑnīðí* or *nīðí*.} *mé, tú, é, &c.*

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses ; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the *Ḑ* (*Ḑnīm* and *nīm*). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of *ðéanam*.

(9.) *ðeirum*, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. . . .

1. *abram*, *abramaoir*, *abramaioib*.2. *abair*.2. *abraið*.3. *abraið ré*;3. *abraiðaoir*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*1. *ðeirum*;1. *ðeirumfo*.2. *ðeirip*.2. *ðeirpíð*3. *ðeirip ré*.3. *ðeirpíð*.*Consuet. Pres.* *ðeirpeann mé, tú, ré, &c.*

Past.

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. duðnar. | 1. duðnamar. |
| 2. duðnair. | 2. duðnabair. |
| 3. duðairt ré. | 3. duðnabair. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	deipinn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	deappað.	
<i>CONDITIONAL MOOD :</i>	deappainn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD ; do ráð. PARTICIPLE ; að ráð.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; abarðar mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	deipðear.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	duðnað.	
<i>Consuet Past :</i>	deipði.	
<i>Future :</i>	deappar.	
<i>CONDITIONAL MOOD :</i>	deappaiðe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD ; do þeir ráiðte, do þeir ráite.

PARTICIPLE ; ráiðte, ráite.

1. The verb abraum, I say, from which deipim borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of duðnar, the past indicative active :—(a) it does not take the participle do or po ; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter *a* is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis ; as a deipim for deipim, I say ; a duðairt ré for duðairt ré, he said.

(10.) Բաճալմ or ճեւնիմ, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. Բաճալիք, Բաճալիք. |
| 2. Բաճ. | 2. Բաճալիք. |
| 3. Բաճալիք, Բե. | 3. Բաճալիք. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Բաճալմ or ճեւնիմ. | 1. Բաճալիք or ճեւնիմ. |
| 2. Բաճալիք or ճեւնիք. | 2. Բաճալիք or ճեւնիք. |
| 3. Բաճալիք Բե, or ճեւնիք Բե. | 3. Բաճալիք or ճեւնիք. |

Past.

- | | |
|----------------|-------------|
| 1. Բաճալիք. | 1. Բաճալիք. |
| 2. Բաճալիք. | 2. Բաճալիք. |
| 3. Բաճալիք Բե. | 3. Բաճալիք. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	Բաճալիմ or ճեւնիմ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ճեւնիմ, ճեւնիմ.	
<i>Future neg. & interrog.</i>	ճեւնիմ or ճեւնիմ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ճեւնիմ, ճեւնիմ. or Բ-Բաճալիմ, Բ-Բաճալիմ.	

INFINITIVE ; Բ'Բաճալի. PARTICIPLE ; աճ Բաճալի.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; Բաճալիք մե, էս, Ե, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	Բաճալիք.	} մե, էս, Ե, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	Բաճալիք or Բաճալիք.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	ճեւնիք.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ճեւնիք, Բ-Բաճալիք.	

(Defective in Infinitive and Participles.)

1. The second form of this verb (ḡeibim) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (puapap, &c.) may or may not take the particle vo or po; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) lċim, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

Future Indicative : iorpað.

CONDITIONAL
MOOD :

iorpaimn.

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

1. The past indicative is either the regular form o'ĩceap, &c., or the irregular ouap (with the usual terminations :—ouap, ouað ré, &c.)

2. The infinitive is o'ĩce.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Riḡim, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. . . .

1. riḡmíř.

2. riḡ.

2. riḡíð.

3. riḡeað ré.

3. riḡíðíř.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. riḡim

1. riḡmíð.

2. riḡíř.

2. riḡíćí.

3. riḡ ré.

3. riḡíð.

Past.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| 1. րանգար. | 1. րանգամար. |
| 2. րանգար. | 2. րանգաձար. |
| 3. րանուց րէ, րանաւց րէ. | 3. րանգաձար. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet Past :</i>	րոջոռ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	րոջբեաձ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	րոջբոռ.	

INFINITIVE ; ծօ րիաճէառ or ծօ րօճէառ.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows :— but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

<i>Past :</i>	րիաճէար.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	րիաճէբաձ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	րիաճէբառ.	

(13.) Շէւծիմ, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. շէւծիմք.
2. շէւծ.	2. շէւծիձ.
3. շէւծեաձ րէ.	3. շէւծիք.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. շէւծիմ.	1. շէւծիմք.
2. շէւծիր.	2. շէւծիճիձ or շէւծիձ.
3. շէւծ րէ.	3. շէւծիձ.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|-------------|
| 1. éuaðar. | 1. éuaðmar. |
| 2. éuaðair. | 2. éuaðbar. |
| 3. éuaið ré. | 3. éuaððar. |

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles *ðo*, *ní*, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative *ní*, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after *ðo*, the initial would be eclipsed.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. ní ðeaðar | 1. ní ðeaðamar. |
| 2. ní ðeaðair. | 2. ní ðeaðabar. |
| 3. ní ðeaðaið ré. | 3. ní ðeaðaðar. |

First Person Singular.]

<i>Consuet Past :</i>	éíðimn.	} With the usual termina- tions for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	paðpað or paðað.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	paðpaimn or paðaimn.	

INFINITIVE ; *ðo* ðul. **PARTICIPLE ;** *að* ðul.

(14.) *tiðim, I come.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tiðimfir or tiðeam.
2. tap or tið.	2. tiðir.
3. tiðeað ré.	3. tiðirfir.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-----------|--------------------|
| 1. tiðim. | 1. tiðimfir. |
| 2. tiðir. | 2. tiðir, tiðirfir |
| 3. tið ré | 3. tiðir. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. éánḡar. | 1. éánḡamar. |
| 2. éánḡair. | 2. éánḡabar. |
| 3. éáinic pé. | 3. éánḡabar. |

First Person Singular

<i>Consuet Past</i>	éiḡinn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	tiocfab.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	éiocfainn	

INFINITIVE; *do éeáóó.* PARTICIPLE; *aḡ ceáóó.*

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

Air or *ap*, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, *air pé*, says he: *cpeub do déunfair dam?* *ap 'Oiapmar:* "'What wilt thou do for me?" says Diarmaid;" *déaneóluir búinn map a b-fuil pé*, *ap riab*, "'give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written *ol*.

At baé, he (or she) died.

Óap, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected): *Óap liom*, methinks or methought; *ḡap leat* it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: *Óo rié pé*, *ḡap liom*, *map an ḡaoié*, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Óliḡéap, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dur, to know; éainic ré dur an paib riab ann, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Peabar, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní peabar mé, I do not know; ní peabar ré, he does not know; an b-peabarabar? do ye know?

Ní puláir, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní puláir dam a beic air riuabal, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle go, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as bopb, fierce; go bopb, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipse.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A b-paò, far off, in space or time.	A b-topaò, at first, in the beginning.
A bup, on this side. (See éall.)	A b-tuaíð, northwards.
	A g-céadóir, immediately.

- A ḡ-cém, far off.
 A ḡ-coihnuðc, always.
 Aḡ pín, there.
 Aḡ pō, here.
 Aḡ púð, yonder.
 Aip aip, back, backward.
 (See aip éiḡm.)
 Aip ball, on the spot, instantly.
 Aip bič, at all.
 Aip bun, on foundation:
 čup aip bun, to found,
 to institute.
 Aip čeana, in like manner;
 in general.
 Aip čoiðčc, for ever.
 Aip éiḡm, with difficulty;
 perforce:—aip aip no aip
 éiḡm, by consent or by
 force: *nolens volens; willy
 nilly*.
 Aip ḡ-cúl, backwards, back:
 čup aip ḡ-cúl—the op-
 posite to čup aip bun—to
 put back, to abolish.
 Aip leič, apart, separately.
 Aip inoð, in a manner; so
 that.
 Aip pon, for the sake of.
 Aip uaiṛið, at times; some-
 times.
 Amač, out of, outside.
 Ainhám, alone, only.
 Amápač, to-morrow.
 Amuiḡ, outside.
 Aminul, like, as.
 An áipde, on high.
 Ané, yesterday.
 Anfor, from below, upwards.
 Ann émpeačt, together.
 Ann pín, there.
 Ann pō, here.
 Ann púð, yonder.
 A ndeap, southward.
 Anace, near.
 Anall, to this side; hither.
 A nḡap, near.
 Anu, to-day.
 Anoip, now.
 Anonn, to that side; thither.
 An tan, when.
 Anuap, from above, down-
 wards.
 Apréip, last night.
 Apraiin, ever.
 Apríp, again.
 Aprteač, in, into.
 Aprtiḡ, in, inside.
 beaḡ nač, little but; almost.
 Cá h-ap, cað ap, canap,
 from what? whence?
 Cá inéið, how many? how
 much?
 Cár, cá h-ár, cia ár,
 what place?
 De bṛiḡ, because.
 Do pšop, always.
 Caðon, that is; *i.e.; id est*.
 Fá, gives an adverbial mean-
 ing to some words.
 Fá čeabóip, immediately.
 Fá čeorḡ, at last.
 Fá ūó, twice.
 Fá řeač, by turns; respec-
 tively.
 Fa čpí, thrice.
 Do bṛáč, for ever (lit. to
 [the] judgment).
 Do venin, verily; truly;
 indeed.
 Do d-čf, unto.
 Do pól, yet; awhile.
 Do h-iomlán, altogether.
 Do léip, entirely.
 Do leóp, enough.
 Iomoppo, however, more-
 over, indeed.
 Maille pe, together with.
 Map an ḡ-čéaðna, likewise;
 in like manner.

Map aon le, together with.
 No go, until.
 O join ale, from that time
 out.
 Op cionn, above.
 Sfor, downwards.
 Soir, eastwards.

Suar, upwards.
 Thall, on the other side; be-
 yond. (See Abup.)
 Tamall, awhile.
 Tuille eile, besides; more-
 over.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

A or i, in; as a mbaile, in
 the town.
 A, out of, or from (unusual);
 as a Muman, out of
 Munster.
 Ag or ag, at, with.
 Ap, ap, upon.
 Ann, in. This takes p before
 the article. (See page 17.)
 Ap, out of.
 Chum, to or towards, for the
 purpose of.
 Dap, used in swearing, equi-
 valent to *by*: dap mo bria-
 dap, “by my word.”
 Do, to. De, from, off, of.
 Eadap, the same as idir.
 Pa or paol, under.
 Dan, without.
 Do, towards, along with. It
 takes p before the article
 an; as gur an d-ti, to the
 house.

I, the same as a.
 Iap, after. It takes p before
 the article (an), and be-
 comes iapp.
 Idir, between.
 Im, the same as um.
 Le or pe, with. It takes p
 before the article (an), and
 then becomes leip or pip.
 Map, like, as.
 O, from.
 Op, over, above.
 Re, ria, before. It takes p
 before the article (an).
 Seac, beyond, besides.
 Tap, over, across. It takes
 p before the article (an),
 and then becomes tapp.
 Tpe, through. It takes p
 before the article, and then
 becomes tper.
 Tpid, the same as tpe.
 Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalga-
 mated with the personal and possessive pronouns,
 for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in
 Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each
 of these consists of a simple preposition followed
 by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the
 noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

Α β-πιαδναίρε, in presence of.

Α β-ποδαιρ, with, along with.

Α δ-ταοιβ, in regard to, concerning.

Α δ-τιμδεαλλ: see τιμδεαλλ,

Α γ-εααν, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

Α γ-κοιννε, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): πιτιδ α γ-κοιννε α δέιλε, "they run against each other:" δο εuaιδ pe α γ-κοιννε α αταρ, he went for his father.

Α γ-κοιρ, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to κοιρ: κοιρ na βριγδε, "beside the (river) Bride."

Α η-αιε, after: α η-αιε na λαοιδε πι, "after that lay."

Αμεαργ, amongst: πιop αμεαργ na γ-κοιλλτεαδ, "down amongst the woods."

Α λαταρ, in presence of.

Αιρ αδαιβ, forward, over against, opposite: δυλ αιρ αδαιβ, to go forward, to progress: αιρ αδαιβ na γαοιτε, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Αιρ βεαλαιβ, in front of, opposite: δο λυιγδβιρ δο γνδε α η-ιομβαιβ αιρ βεαλαιβ α η-αταρ, "they used to lie, customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).

Αιρ βυ, on foundation.

Αιρ εααν, for (in the phrase to go for); as α δυβαίρεc Naire le η-Αρδαν δυλ αιρ εανν Fepγuir, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."

Αιρ φεαδ, through, throughout, during: αιρ φεαδ βλιαδνα, "during a year."

Αιρ φυδ, throughout, amongst αιρ φυδ na δ-τοαν, amongst the waves.

Αιρ γ-κυλ, behind.

Αιρ ρον, for the sake of, although.

Α η-δαιιβ, after: α η-δαιιβ α δέιλε, after one another, one after another.

Κοιρ, contracted from α γ-κοιρ.

Οάλα, as to: οάλα βλανάιβε, "as to Blanaid."

Ο'έιρ, after: ο'έιρ na βίλιννε, "after the deluge."

Ο'ιοννραιγδ or ο'ιοννραιγε, towards: γλυαιρεαρ ρόμινε ο'ιοννραιγε α λυινγε, "he goes forward towards his ship."

Do cum, towards.

Do péir, according to.

Do nuige, unto, until.

Do b-cí, to, unto, as far as: riubail go b-cí an dorup,
walk to the door.

Iomtúra, as to: iomtúra Phinn, "as to Finn."

Pá tuairim, towards.

Láim le or láim pe, near, by, beside: ruið láim liom, sit
near me; láim pe beannaib boirce, "beside Beanna
Boirche."

Or cionn, over, above: Dhaðuið Dia ór cionn gað uile
nið, "love God above all things:" no éirið or cionn an
gaoi, "he rose over the spear."

I ð-cionn, the same as a ð-ceann: i ð-cionn na bliaðna,
"at the end of the year."

Tap ceann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

Tap air, backwards; same as air air.

Tap éir, after; the same as déir: tap éir na Samna,
"after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Timceall, about, around: teaçt timceall Dhiarmaða,
"to go around Dermot."

Or comair, in presence of, before the face of: ór comair
Phinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

Αἰετ, but, except.

Αἰετ ἔαυτα, but however.

Αἶψα, and ; often contracted to αἶψα, and ἴψα.

Αἶψα an αὐτοῦ πῖν, wherefore.

Αἶψα, an interrogative particle: an ἔστιν ἡ πῖν πῖν? Is she well?

Αἶψα, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.

βίος, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb τῶν.

βίος: see βίος.

βίος, as.

βίος, if: sometimes written βίος μο.

βίος ἔπειτα, because.

βίος ἐν τῷ, in order that.

βίος, yet, moreover.

βίος or βίος, although.

βίος, that.

βίος αἶψα πῖν, wherefore.

βίος, that: formed of the preceding and πῖν: see p. 58.

βίος, βίος: see βίος.

βίος βίος, in order that, so that.

βίος, if.

βίος βίος, although that.

βίος, as: see βίος.

βίος, if not, unless; often written βίος, and even (corruptly) βίος.

βίος, if so, well then.

βίος πῖν, βίος πῖν, in that manner, in this manner: thus.

βίος, than: see βίος.

βίος, nor, not.

βίος, or: often pronounced βίος in Munster.

βίος, since, seeing that, because.

βίος ἔπειτα, since, whereas.

βίος, because.

βίος, before.

βίος πῖν, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

Α, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O.

Α ἔπειτα, alas! what pity!

Εἴς, hush! list!

Πάσα, πάσα, alas!

Πάσα ἔπειτα, alas! O sharp sorrow!

Ρέα, see! behold!

Μαίη, woe! O sad!

Μονάη, O shame

Μονάη, alas! woe is me!

Μο ἔπειτα: see α ἔπειτα.

Οἶ, ὡ, alas!

Οἶ, or ὡ, alas! written οἶ or ὡ in old writings.

Οἶ, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule *caol le caol* &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Ar or *air*, back or again, like English *re*: as *íoc*, payment; *airíoc*, repayment, restitution: *airḡe*, rising; *air-airḡe* resurrection.

An or *aín*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *reíð*, open, clear; *aínreíð*, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as *luatḡáipeac*, joyful; as *an-luatḡáipeac*, overjoyed.

An or *aín*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *tráð* time; *an-tráð*, untimely: *míán*, desire; *aínmíán*, evil desire.

At, a reiterative, like English *re*: as *ráð*, a saying; *at-ráð*, a repetition.

At has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as *cuma*, a form; *at-cumað*, to deform, to destroy; *ríogad*, to crown or elect a king; *at-ríogad*, to dethrone.

Ban, feminine (from *bean*, a woman); as *eaclaó*, a messenger; *ban-eaclaó* or *bain-eaclaó*, a female messenger.

Bí or *bíot*, lasting, constant: as *beó*, living; *bíotbá*, everlasting.

Córh, equal : English *co* or *con* : as *aimeap*, time ; *córh-aimeapad*, contemporary.

Deağ, deiğ, good : as *blap*, taste ; *deağblap*, good or pleasant taste.

Dí, dío, a negative, like English *dis* : as *céillíde*, wise ; *dí-céillíde*, foolish : *ceann*, a head ; *díceannað*, to behead.

Dpoð, dpoic, bad or evil : as *obair*, a work ; *dpoð-obair* an evil work.

Do and **po** are opposites, as are also often the letters *d* and *p*. **Do** denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality : as *faiceanað* or *po-faiceanað*, visible ; *do-faiceanað*, invisible : *bolár*, tribulation ; *pólár*, comfort : *donap*, ill luck ; *ponap*, good luck : *do-déunta*, hard to be done ; *po-déunta*, easy to be done : *duðac*, sad ; *puðac*, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis : as *daingean*, strong ; *éadaingean*, weak : *cóip*, just ; *éagecóp*, injustice : *cpom*, heavy ; *éadcpom*, light.

Eap, a negative : as *onóip*, honour ; *eaponóip*, dishonour : *plán*, healthful ; *eaplán*, sick : *caipbear*, friendship ; *eap-caipbear*, enmity.

Po, under : as *buine*, a man ; *po-buine*, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Prit, against, back, contra : as *buille*, a stroke ; *ppritbuille*, a back stroke : *bac*, a hook ; *ppritbac*, a *back-hook*, a barb.

Il, iol, many : as *iomad*, much ; *iliomad*, sundry, various : *daç*, a colour ; *ioldaçac*, many coloured : *paobap*, an edge ; *iolpaobap*, many-edged weapons.

In, ion, fit : as *déunta*, done ; *indéunta*, fit to be done : *paðce*, said ; *ionpaðce*, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensive : as *adðbéil*, vast ; *lánadðbéil*, awfully vast.

Leač, half : as *uair*, an hour ; *leačuair*, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair : thus *púil*, an eye ; *leač-púil* (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mío, a negative : as *meap*, respect ; *mímeap*, disrespect : *córhairple*, advice ; *mioócórhairple*, evil advice.

Neairn, neirn, a negative : as *comprigce*, comprehensible ; *neairncomprigce*, incomprehensible : *nð*, a thing ; *neirn-nð*, nothing.

Reurn, before, like English *pre* : as *paðce*, said ; *peurn-paðce*, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensive particle : as *mór*, great ; *pó-mór*, very great.

Sár, an intensitive particle: as maíτ, good; rár-maíτ, very good.

So, poi, the opposite to do, denotes apt, easy, good as deapbēta, proved; poiðeapbēta, easily proved.

Up or úip, an intensitive particle: as ípeal, low; úipípeal, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

Ác, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as bpaíðean, the black-thorn; bpaíðeanaç, abounding in black-thorn: bpaíçap, a word; bpaíçpach, wordy, talkative.

Ác, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as cúmaçc, power: cúmaçcaca, a mighty person: Connaçcaca, a native of Connaught.

Ác, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probability*): as capçanaç, charitable: capçanaçc, charity: móp and mópða, great; mopðaçc, greatness.

Áíðe, uíðe, or íðe, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as cop, a foot; coipíðe, a walker: ciomán, drive; ciomán-aiðe, a driver.

Áipe or ípe, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as lopç, a track; lopçaipe, a tracker: cealç, guile; cealçaipe, a deceiver.

Ámaíl has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as plaíç, a prince; plaíçeamháil, princely.

Án, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as loç a lake; loóán, a small lake.

Áp or eap, and sometimes the letter p alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like *æc*; as coibm, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

aoibneap, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceannap, headship, authority.

bhap and bpe have a collective or cumulative sense; as buille, a leaf; builleabap, foliage: bap, an oak; bapbpe, a place of oaks.

Chap has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; beanncap, abounding in peaks or gables.

Oe, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms ba, ða, and ta; as móp, great; mópða, majestic: peap, a man; peapða, manly: míle, a champion; míleaðta, champion-like, knightly.

U denotes abstract quality, like aót; as pinn, fair or white; pinne, fairness: boð, soft; buiðe, softness.

In, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. bótap, a road; bótapín (*bohcreen*), a little road: *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Laé, naé, paé, taé, tpaó, have all the same meaning as aó, namely, full of, abounding in; as bup, break; bupleaó, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclaé, a piggery: luaéap, rushes; luaéapnaé, a rushy place: boð, a bog or soft place; boðpaé, a place full of bogs: coill, a wood; coillteaó, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varic-ty*, &c.

Mhap means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as bpið, power; bpiðmhap, powerful.

Oð, a diminutive termination; as císap, black; císapð, a black little animal (a clock): ðabál, a fork; ðabálð, a little fork.

Oip, or ðóip, or tóip, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as buail, strike; buailtóip, thresher: coimeal, a candle; coimleóip, a candlestick: ppeal, a scythe; ppealabóip, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like bap; as beul, the mouth; béipe, language, speech.

Seac is used as a sort of feminine termination; as gall, an Englishman; gaillpeac, an Englishwoman: óinpeac, a female fool (from an old root ón, whence the old word ón mī, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amabán).

Taé and tpaó: see laé.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as *guc gaoir*, the voice of a hound; *b-plaicior Epeann*, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" *bápp na h-inne*, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as *mac an píp*, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as *Conall g-crotaib bápp*, "Conall in the forms of death;" *a n-dólar bpóide a'p péine*, "in the sorrow of bondage and of pain."

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *plioct* *ḡhaoiðil*, "the race of Gaodhal;" *cloiðeam* *Mhanannam*, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, *ð* and *τ* often resist aspiration (p. 34); as *Cipe mḡean* *Dealbaoið*, "Eirè, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *Ōamḡen mac n-Uipneac*, "the fortress of [*the*] sons of Usna;" *buiðean cùpað*, "a company of knights;" *ḃiap ban*, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women").

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as *naoi naonban ðo bí aḡ ceac̃τ ḃiap̃pað c̃fopa aḡup cána ḃ-peap n-Cipionn*, "nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of the men of Erin."

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as *Nuaða Cipḡioblám mac Eac̃taḡ mic Eadaplam̃*, "Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;" *na ḃ-τḡḡḡ ḃ-Pinneam̃na, mac Eoc̃aḡ*, "of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, *Nuaða* is nominative, and so is *mac*, which is in apposition to it; *Eac̃taḡ* is genitive, and so is the next word, *mic*, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, *Pinneam̃na* is in the genitive (plural), and *mac* also, in opposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see "Idioms," No. 33, p. 129. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, *ḡámm̃iðe buiðe óḡða map*

bíðeað an Mháipe, bean Sheagáin an rígeaðóra,
 “yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of
 John (the son of) the weaver;” éamhc níg Chiap-
 puríðe luaçra d’ríop a òimðalta, eaðon, Cian mac
 Oiholla, “the King of Kerry-Luachra came to
 visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of
 Oilioll: do ériall (Orcap) a ð-coinne Mheapðaið
 mípe, an tpeán leóman “Oscar went to meet
 the furious Meargach, *the strong lion*.”

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between Mháipe and bean, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after an), the latter nominative (its dative would be mnaoi, p. 29). In the second example òimðalta is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and Cian, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céin). In the last example Mheapðaið is genitive, and leóman, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on (“Idioms:” No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, “a gold ring,” Irish, páinne óir, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as fear bliðe, a lawyer; literally “a man of law.”

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is used; as, noçturð an fúipeann rin, “that company disclose;” tanðabar an buíðean éupað rin do láçair Fhinn, aður do beannuið riad do, “that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him.”

The personal nouns from ðiap to ðeicneabap, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as do ðabap an ðiap rin ðo h-impeapnaç, “that pair were at strife.”

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take *de* with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as *ḡaḡar d'ár nḡaḡaraib*, "a hound of our hounds;" *aon éaop d'ioḡ*, "one berry of them;" *ḡaḡ buine de'n p'obul*, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from *d'iar* to *deic'neabap* inclusive (p. 39,) and also *teópa*, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as *d'iar ban*, "two (of) women;" *a épiúr mac aḡur a d-tpiur ban*, "his three sons and their three wives;" *teópa ban*, "three women;" *naonbar taoipeaḡ*, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take *de* with the dative as in last rule; as *naoi naonbar do maopaiḡ na b-fómopac*, "nine times nine of the *stewards* of the Fomerians;" *mo ḡis mac, mo ḡis d'feparaib*, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and caso; as *an peap*, the man; *na cipce*, of the hen; *na ba*, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, *aop an domhain*, not, *an aop an domhain*.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as *an t-oidé múinte*, the teacher; *má do beip tú an oipeaḡ rin búinn 'ran ló ro na n-deóp*, "if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *l6* and *deór*. *Tangabadan apír i n-Eirinn an phloct ro Shimeon Óhpic*, "these descendants of Simon Bree came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *phloct*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *teac m'atár*, not *an teac m'atár*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as *the world's age*; *my father's house*.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as *an fear sin*, that man, literally "the man that;" *na mná úd*, yonder women: literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *Moenan*, *abb Caípraé Púppa ipm Fpamc, déug*, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *Cpuaca na h-Eipeann*, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" *tuairceart na h-Ásia*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as *an t-Orcap áḡ*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *ip* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as *ip maí an fear é*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

9. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as *an t-ocpup*, the hunger; *trí nḡ do éim*:—*an peacaḡ, an báp, a'p an pían*, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and *the* pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *de* or the genitive; as (dative after *de*):—*idir óá bapaile lán de leann*, “between two barrels full of ale;” *tá mé lán do náipe*, “I am full of shame;” *mórán d’uairib*, “many of nobles:” (genitive):—*lán a úirín*, “the full of his fist;” *an paib mórán airgid aige*, “had he much of money?” *cpaob bpaioḡin agur a lán áipneað uirpe*, “a branch of blackthorn and its full of *sloes* on it.”

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *ná* (or *má* or *ioná*) before the noun which follows it; as *ir binne a ceól ná lon ’pná pmól*, “sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush.”

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *de* (“of it”) after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then *ná* is not used; as *nač bu peirpbe óóib é*, “that they would be none the better of it.”

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE
ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English “a high tower”), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as *caḃlač móp*, “a great fleet.”

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as *caol-pear*, "slender man;" *mór íarraighe*, "great sea;" *duib-éapraig*, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: *deag*, good; *droch*, evil; *íor*, true; *nua*, new; *rean*, old; *tuath*, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as *Sluaib aóbal-mór luaçpa*, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" *Eamun mîn áluinn Maça*, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as *pear maic*, a good man; *íóeul na mná móire*, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); *ar an aóibéir iongancaig*, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as *bean aóur pear maic*, a good woman and man; *pear aóur bean maic*, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as *mór uaple*, "great nobles;" *do mór uaplib*, "to [the] great nobles;" *bán énoic Cipeann*, "the fair hills of Erin;" *luat bápa*, swift barks; *féop rgeul*, "a true story;" *féop rgeulta*, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule *caol le caol* &c.; as *Deirdre an Dubh-fleibe*, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" *óg-bean*, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as *gáipe na n-óg-fear*, "the laughter of the young men;" *an t-árdo ollam rin*, "that chief professor;" *an t-pean-bean boct*, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *tá*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *tá an lá breá*, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb *ip*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *ip bpeáð an lá é*, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as *ip aibinn do éuain acap do éalapuir acap do maða mínpcóð-aca caemáilne*, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:” *aður cpoicne péíteað ar na n-dačúğað deapğ*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective *aibinn* (modern *aoibinn*) which is asserted of them by *ip*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibinne* or *aibne*). In the second example *cpoicne* is plural, while *deapğ* is singular (plural *deapğa*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Do piğne pé na bpaic ġlapa*; *do piğne pé na bpaic ġlap*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as τρί ῥῖπ, three men; παν ὑπα ἡ-αῖτ, "in the second place."

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and ὑέαγ; as τρί capall ὑέαγ, thirteen horses; an τρεαρ capall ὑέαγ, the thirteenth horse.

3. Ἄον, one; ὅα, two; ἑέαδ, first; and τρεαρ, third, cause aspiration; as αον ῥεαρ, one man; ὅα ῖνναοι, two women; αῖ τρεαρ ῥεατ, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals ῥεατ, οὐτ, ναοι, and ὑειδ, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ῖ, in which case there is no change), as ῥεατ m-bliad-na, "seven years;" οὐτ m-ba, "eight cows;" ναοι n-aibne, "nine rivers;" ὑειδ ḃ-ῥῖπ, "ten men."

5. The numerals τρί, ceitpe, cúig, ῥé, the ordinals (except ἑέαδ and τρεαρ: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as ceitpe γαḃair, "four hounds."

6. Ἄον, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as αον lá, one day; céad ceann, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head," just as we say "a hundred head of cattle"); τρί caogad laoc, "three times fifty heroes;" míle bean, "a thousand women."

7. *Ó*, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as *ó* *peap*, two men; an *ó* *lámh*, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following *ó* be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as *lámh* a *ó* *lámh*, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although *ó* takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as *do* *gluaireadar* an *ó* *éirinníleas* *rin*, "these two strong heroes went;" *po* *gab* a *ó* *pleağ* *éiró-éairpínge* *éirann-peamra* *ar* na *b-poéruša* a *b-fuil* na *épac* *neimhe*, "he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to *pleağ*, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as *is* *maí* an *bean* *í*, she is a good woman; *is* *maí* an *peap* *é*, he is a good man; *is* *mór* na *daoine* *iad*, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as *do m-béidís fúir Eipeann an bap n-aḡaid, naé bu peipphé doib é*, “if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it*,” (here the pronoun *é* stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *is* (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as *már maí na leaḡa rí, ar éiríon*, “‘if ye are the good physicians,’ says *he*.”

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (*mine, thine, hers, &c.*), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mo máṭair*, my mother; *a ḡ-carbad*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mo*, my; *do*, thy; and *a*, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mo ḡcann*, my head; *do éor*, thy foot; *a meup*, his finger.

4. The possessive *a*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *a máṭair*, her mother; *a h-aṭair*, her father.

5. The possessives *ár*, our; *bap*, your; and *a*, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *p*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *n* to vowels; as *ár d-tír*, our country; *bap m-ba*, your cows; *a n-aṭair*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as *dom époide*, to my heart; *óna o-típ*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as *an té a íuibulpar*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as *an laoc a ínapb an t-atác*, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative *a* signifies "all that" (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as *a b-puil ó Ghailib buó ócap*, "all that is from Galway southwards;" *do péip a n-dubpamap*, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative *a* is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except *p*) is eclipsed; as *a pé nio ímoppa dá o-táinic a báp* "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" *an boic ina n-icóip*, "the tent in which they used to eat;" *a dubaipc Pionn go n-diongnaó (píc) gíó bé nóp a n-diongnaó Diarmaid í*, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition *ann* is understood:

ḡið bé nóρ ann a n-ðionḡnað Ðiarmait í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it.) (See next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle *po* or *do*, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as áit ap éuit Ðapa Ðearḡ, “the place in which fell Dara Dearg.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as an tíρ a ḡpaðuiḡim, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as an cara a ḡpaðuiḡið mé, the friend whom I love; an cara a ḡpaðuiḡear mé, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as oḡlaoc̃ do iunnñt̃ip Nín iñc̃ Pél̃ éam̃ic̃ uaið do ðpač̃ na Eip̃ionn, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” An leab̃ap po p̃ep̃ioð (Cambreñp̃ip) do éuap̃arḡbãil Eip̃ionn, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative *a* is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with *po*, the mark of the past tense; as an tíρ óρ éam̃ic̃ me, “the country from which I came” (here óρ = ó a po); pláḡ̃ l̃ép̃ maḡbað noí mílo ðioð̃, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here l̃ép̃ = le a po); an tíρ dá ð-éam̃ic̃ p̃é, the country to which he came (dá = do a); lá ðap comópað aonaé le piḡ Eipeann, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (ðap = do a po); ní beaḡ liom̃pa ap

plóinneap péin map eipic, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *erie*." (Cp=a po, in which a means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an peap pin, that man; cia h-é pin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb *is* in any of its forms is understood; as rúð ðap ð-cuib, "yonder (is) your meal;" ro an lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as cia an peap ballac binnbriacpac úð? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá ð-puil mo leabap? where is my book? cia an laoc úð ap ðualainn ðhoill? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as cad ap tu? out of what (place art) thou? ðo ðe map cá tú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") cpeud pá ap eipðeabap, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as plán ón uile ðalap, "sound from every sickness;" ða baðad an cine ðaona uile ðo h-aon oðtap, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as ðponð ambpiorað ip na h-uile pubáilcib, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, uile means "all" though it precedes its noun).

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as *do gluar Fergus*, "Fergus went;" *do claoiòcaò Mac Garraidh*, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as *an tè a fìubhalpar*, the person who will walk; *cpeud atá ann?* what is here? *Ùeópaiòche rìopa òan rìgic òan pop mianaid a d-tìp 'r a n-dútèap*, "perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as *do aigel Conchobhar Borach*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" *do líon Òpráinne an copin*, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as *an laòc a ònaipic mé ané*, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; *caò deip tú?* what sayest thou?

5. When the verb *tá* is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as *táid na peulta po-lonnpac*, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb *is*, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as *ba ùinne a glóip ná ceól na n-éun*, "*her voice*

was sweeter than the music of the birds:" ní fada uair an áit, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as ip tura an tsí po-aoribinn, "thou art the delightful country;" ip mé Cían mac Cainte, "I am Cían, the son of Cainte;" an tu Fionn? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as do gluar bpeap agur na bpaoríe pómpa, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as buail é, strike him; do cuipeadai Tuatha De Danann ceó bpaoríeaceta i n-a b-timceall réin, "the Tuatha de Dananns put a magical mist around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition *le* or *pe* before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabair eile) atá pe b-paiceim i n-Cipinn, "(other books, which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as agur do m-bíó ollain pe dénaí peile ar a céile, "and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as *Fiachra mac Ailene tigeapna Muğöopn do mapbað*, “Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain” (lit. “Fiachra, &c., to slay”): *ağur an fear nað tiobpað (an cíop) rin uaið, a ípón do buain óna ceann de*, “and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose *to be cut* off from his head.”

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as *da m-bað nað paðpað clanna lloipne d'iappað na ð-caop rin*, “if it were so that the Clann Morna *had not come to seek* those berries.”

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words (“Irish Grammar,” p. 387.)

14. “When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as *dubairt pé lom dul go Corcaig*, he told me to go to Cork.”

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as *tanğaoap cablað mór do óéanam coğuið*, “a great fleet came *to make war*” (nom. *coğuið*, war, gen. *coğuið*); *do malleað élonne lip*, “to kill the children of Lir.”

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, *ağur ipeað do ġmoð, dá cuaille do cup i d-calmam ağur ceann an t-ínáite do ceangal da ġað cuaille óioð, ağur uball do cup air mullað cuaille aca*, “and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put* in the earth, and *the end* of a thread *to tie* to each pole of them, and *an apple to put* on the top of a pole of them.”

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as *aḡ bpuīčneað an óir*, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); *do bí an ḡaoðal ro aḡ múnab reol*, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); *aḡ točailt na talman*, "digging the ground."

18. The verb *ir* in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *ir í céadpað bpoingē pe peančur*, "*it* is the opinion of some historians;" *ir mic piḡ ḡo pírinneač iab*, "*they* are truly sons of a king;" *aḡur píappaigear an piḡ cia h-iab pém*, "and the king asks who *they* (are)."

19. The verb *ir* is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as *beača an pčapaibē pírinne*, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" *ceann Ůhiapmuda U Ůhuiðne an ceann úð*, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" *cia tupa? mīri lollan*, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" *an píop pīn*, "whether (is) that true?" *ní mīri*, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *béantap é*, it is done; *buaílteap iab* they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as *éáinic pé go Copcaig*, he came *to Cork*; *aḡ coir an t-pléibé*, *at the foot of the mountain*; *aipinḡ cuibḡ do na h-úḡḡapairḡ*, "*some of the authors reckon.*" (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition *uib* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as *uib Copcaḡ aḡur Luimneacḡ*, between Cork and Limerick; *uib na cóigecḡairḡ*, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions *ann*, *go*, *iar*, *ria*, *le orpe*, and *cap*, take *p* before *an*, the article, the *p* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as *annp an leabap* or *ann pan leabap*, in the book; *leip an b-peap*, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as *do puḡ an tonna pīp a n-aḡairḡ an énuic*, "he brought the tun with him *against the hill*;" *a b-piaḡnuirḡ b-peap n-Éiruonh*, "*in presence of the men of Erin*;" *do ḡluairḡap clann Tuireann pompa d'ionnpuirḡ an éacḡa*, "the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle*."

The following prepositions, *éum*, towards; *bála*, as to; *béir*, after; *iomḡupa*, as to; *meapḡ* or *ameapḡ*, amongst; *péir*, according to; and *tīmcioll*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 83.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, *a n-aḡairḡ an énuic*, is literally "in the face of the hill," where *énuic* is governed in the genitive by *aḡairḡ*, face; and so of the other 3.

5. The simple prepositions, except *do*, *de*, *ḡan*, and *uib*, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as *ó'n ḡ-cnoc pīn*, "from

that hill;" aḡ an m-baile na h-inpe ríap, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as aṛp bapp an époinn, "on the top of the tree;" ó múpaib na Teampaic, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: a or i, iap, and ḡo (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as a m-baile aḡa cliaic, in Baile-atha-cliaith (Dublin); iap n-bólinn, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: aḡ. le, and sometimes ḡo, cause no change in the initial, and ḡan may either aspirate or not; as plán le Maig. "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" o'n τ-Sionunn roip ḡo pappḡe, "from the Shannon east to the sea."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive a (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter n is inserted between the vowels; as τpe n-a bapaib, "*through his* hands;" an lá ḡo n-a lán τ-poillpe, "the day *with its* abundant light."

Except after do and de; as tabaṛp péup dá éapall give grass to his horse; bam ḡeug d'á ḡ-cpann, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as do éuaib pe ḡo h-Alban, he went to Alban (Scotland).

PART IV.

I D I O M S .

AN idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*ṡá an leabap ag an duine*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man has the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

English.	Irish.	Contracted to.	
To strike {	me,	do mo bualaó,	dom' bualaó.
	thee,	do do bualaó,	doð' bualaó.
	him,	do a bualaó,	dá bualaó.
	her,	do a bualaó,	dá bualaó.
	us,	do áp m-bualaó,	dáp m-bualaó.
	you,	do búp m-bualaó,	(not contracted)
them.	do a m-bualaó.	dá m-bualaó.	

These may be translated literally, "to my striking," "to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: *aḡ a bualað*, striking him: *aḡ a bualað*, striking her: *aḡ án m-bualað*, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—*éáinic mían a maḡḡca ðam féin*, "a desire to kill them, has come to me" (lit. "a desire of the killing of them," or "of their killing.")

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 114); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: *aip fon*, for the sake of; *aip a fon*, for his sake; *aip ðup fon*, for your sake, &c. *Do éuaio ðiarnaio dá h-éip*, Diarmaid went after her: *éáinic cinneap oppa fein, aḡup ap a phioct 'n-a n-ðiaio*, "sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: *cap aip*, backwards; *do éuaio pé cap a aip*, he went backwards; *do éuaio pí cap a h-aip*, she went backwards; *do éuaio riao cap a n-aip*, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

"To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning "to find death:" the verb *faḡ*, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, *an ðapa bliagaín dá éip rin fuair lriai báp*, "the second year after that Irial found death;" *aḡup máp ann atá a n-ðán ðam báp d'páḡail*, "and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find" (i. e., "that it is fated for me to die.")

There is, however, a single verb *d'éuḡ*, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—*A ðeip cuio do na pean-uḡðaparaib ḡup ab a n-ḡleann da loca fuair naom ḡað-puig báp; bioð ḡo n-abpaio ḡpunḡ oile ḡupab ann*

Ἀρδομαεα δ'εὐς ρέ, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *aip* (on), or *iap* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*aip m-beit aea páda do Chomnac aḡ a b-peitíom*, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): *aḡur aip m-beit ollaiú don luinḡ*, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); *aḡur aip n-bul a luinḡ dóib*, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): *iap m-beit tpean ip an tír dóib*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them").

5. To have no help for a thing,

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neapt*) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. *Ní b-fuil neapt aḡum aip an núb ím*, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). *Aḡur a dubairt ḡrainne nae paib neapt aice péim aip*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *léigear*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neapt*.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish by *do éip* (or *do éabairt*) *pá deapa*, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." *Aḡur po éip Miodaé pa n-deapa úip Inpe Tuile do éip fúib*, "and Miodbach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" *do ruḡ (ríḡ) bpeaé báip aip an m-bpeiteam, aḡur éuḡ pa deapa a énoeaó* " (the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. *Agur tainic lip rónne apnamápac, caogac cairpceac, ó Shíot buibb Deirg*, "and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg" (i.e., *with* fifty chariots): *agur tainic boibb Deirg, naoi céad ficéad, da n-ionnpuige*; "and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them."

This is like the English:—"The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong."

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as *gábra cugaimm amac, agur ní lamfap fuilugað ort*, "come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee:" (literally, "and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus instead of "they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond," the writer expresses himself in this way:—"it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond."

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as *ir amlaib bí Naisi agur Déirdre, agur an cenncháim ecappa, agur iad ag imirt uipre*, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cenncháimh (a chess board) between them, and *they playing on it*; *ir amlaib do bí Cobhac, agur é ag peargað*, "it is thus Cobhthach was, and *he pining away*;" *cuipior pceula go bláchnuð é péin do beic ann rin*, "he sends word to Blaid, *he himself to be there*" (i.e., "that he himself was there").

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as *do éuir* (an *éú*) *a ceann a n-uét Dhiarmuda aḡur é ina còdla* “(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*”

10. One person meeting another.

“Donall met Fergus” is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*Do capaḡ Fepḡur air Doimnall*; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” *Do capaḡ Aoibell na Craige léite opuinn*, “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): *cia cappaide opm aét pṡuaib-bean*, “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb *capla*, happened: *aḡur cápla oḡlaé oppṡa ar m-boḡaḡ*, “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): *cpialluib ḡo Sliaḡ Mish ḡo cápla banba ḡo n-a dṡaioib oppa ann*, “they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there” (“until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them there”).

11. Although: Although not.

ḡion ḡo or *ḡion ḡur* has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes it means “although” (or “although that”), and sometimes “although not.”

Although:—*a Fhinn, ar Orḡar, ḡion ḡur foḡre mo ḡaol duire ná do Dhiarmuib O’Dhuibne*, “‘O Finn, says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibne.’”

Although not:—*do bépum cómaple maic éib, a Chlann Uirniḡ, ḡion ḡo n-déntar lib í*, “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” *ḡion ḡur ééapṡb mná an nḡo rin*, “*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman.”

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, *ir péidip le*, “it is possible with;” as *ir péidip l’om a d’éanaḡ*, I can do it (lit. “it is possible with me to do it:” see Idiom I.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb *ciḡim*, “I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as *muna b-tigeaḁ nup an cailleaḁ d'amap*, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); *aḁt nup boile pinn mḁ rin map aḁaḁ ḁp b-ḁpí péinnide ceangailte mḁp b-piaḁnuire*, *aḁup naḁ b-tig pinn pḁaoileaḁ ḁíob*, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them:" *ní cūipeann ualaḁ oppainn naḁ b-tig linn a iomḁap*, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb *ḁá* or *up* is used instead of *tig*, and also the preposition *aḁ* instead of *le*; as *ḁ naḁ liom dul ḁn ḁ-contaḁairḁ po*, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here *up* is understood): *ḁ naḁ b-puil dul uaiḁ aḁum*, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him": here *ḁá* and *aḁ* are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word *leaḁ*, half: *leaḁ-ḁop*, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word *leaḁ* is used adjectively, so that *leaḁ-ḁop* means, not half of a foot, but a *half-foot* (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also *leaḁ-ḁúil*, one eye, *leaḁ-ḁaoḁ*, one side, &c. *Ip amlaiḁ ḁo bí an nup rin aḁup leaḁ-laiḁ aipḁip aip*, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word *aonap*, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like *ḁpúp*, *cúigeap*, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—*ḁo púbaḁ mé a'm aonap*, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); *ḁo púbaḁ tú aḁ' aonap*, thou walkedst alone: *ḁo púbaḁ pí n-a h-aonap*, "she walked alone," &c.; *am aonap péal a púbaḁ bíḁeap*, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" *ḁá mé liom péin*, I am alone ("I am with myself"): *ḁá tú leaḁ péin*, thou art alone: *ḁá puaḁ leo péin*, they are alone: *ḁá mo máitḁpín 'n-a coḁlaḁ*, *aḁup mure liom péin*, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c., *on* that other, the preposition *aip* being used. *Do tuḡ pé tpi ba aip an ḡ-capall rin*, he gave three cows for that horse: *aip Eipe ní 'neórainn cia h-í*, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" (*'neórainn* for *inneórainn*: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition *aip* is set before the noun of price: *do ceannuigear an bó bán rin aip pé púint*, I bought that white cow for six pounds: *ní h-ionḡna ap Cormac, óip ip maíe an luáe tuḡar uippe*, "'No wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition *aip* being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by *tá* and *aḡ* as in Idiom 34. *Tá tpi púint aḡ Fergus aip Doimnall*, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: *tá bean eile a n-Éocail a b-puill aici copóin aip*, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown ("to whom is a crown on him"): *ip amlaib do bí an píḡ ro, aḡur éor cáin móp tnom aḡ Fomhópaib ap Tuatha Dé Danann pe n-a linn*, "it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuath De Dananns").

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" *iapp aip Ohia na ḡrápa rin*, "ask of God those graces."

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition *aip* being used: *tá fuacḡ cḡm* (cold is on me), I am cold; *ná bíoḡ eagla opt* (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: *do bí capḡ móp aip Sheafan* (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty; *cat*

é rin ort? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A cúiple mo ópoide cneud f an ópuaim rin ort? "O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?"

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition *ar* being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by *ad* and *as*, as in idiom 34:—*ní mó an cion no bá as Aonghus ortra ná an cion no bá as muintir Aonghusa ar niac an reachtaire. go raib fórmad mór ar t'adair pá n-a cionn rin*, "not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:" see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by *love is on you*: you are esteemed, by *estimation is on you*, &c.: *ad meap asur cion mór ar Orcair* (great esteem and love are on Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*.

20. To know: to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase *knowledge is with me*, I have knowledge; and to know a person by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "asur on b-puil a fíor aghad féin, a Fhinn?" "ní b-puil, ar Fhinn:" "do you know it, O Finn?" "I do not," says Finn" (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says Finn): *an áil leat fíor d'fádhail?* do you wish to know? ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): *bíod a fíor aghad, a leuótorp.* "know O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), *no fíappraí Fhinn do éac an d-tuagadair aine oppéa*, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): *asur tuagairre aine opm*, "and thou knewest" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on re").

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition *le* or *pe* being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" *peapadap féin aghur Diarmaid pe n-a céile*, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:" *do peap pé rinn*, "he separated from us;" *peap Orcair le Diarmaid*, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid:" *do peap nír*, "he separated from him;" *a gh Cuprae Cill'-dara do peap le ghab mo éiríde*, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart,'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Dá placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective *álainn*, fine or beautiful, is formed *áilne* or *áille*, fineness, beauty; and *da áilne* or *da áille*, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—*Ní b-puil pionúr dá mheud, nae b-tuillid*, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:" *an tpeap gear, gan comrag aoinpír dá éiríir air talhmam d'obae*, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:" *deamhan ná diaeal dá éiríre lám*, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition *ibí*, between; as *bainpíe Dia páraim díeib ann gae roeap d'a b-tuag díeib ibí ceill, ceapaeabáib, aghur conae íaoealta*, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" *cúig mfe ibí peapab aghur mnáib*, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb *beir*, bear, being used with the preposition

air. Examples:—*Fágðam an tulað ro ar eagla go m-beappað Aongus an ðhroga oppuinn*, “let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:” *leanur air a lonð go péimðípeað iab do’n Mhúinam, go ruð oppa að Solcóib*, “he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid:” *go nað fúigfidir an fonn rin nó go m-beipeað Maipora Síde oppa*, “that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:” *panpabra leat ar an látaip ro nó go m-beipir opm apir*, “I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:” *ðað aon air a m-béappainni*, “every one whom I would overtake” (“every one on whom I would bear”).

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him:” *aður do éðg Oipín an fear rin, aður ro éuir an cluicðe ar Píonn*, “and Oisín moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:” *aður ní ruðamar an báipe ar a ééile*, “and we did not win the goal on each other” (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.)

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as “it seemed long to him,” “he thought it long,” are expressed by the verb *ip* and the preposition *le*: *ip paða liom* (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. *Aður do bo paða le na ðnátirib do bi ðrian uatá*, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): *ip olc linn ar ðean rioc*, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us:” *ar* = *a ro*, and *a* means “all that:” see p. 47): *tuigimri nað ionihuin leatpa me péin*, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions *le* and *do*: *ip maic é do’n ð-fear rin*, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): *ip maic é leip an ð-fear rin*, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—*ba maic liom riubail aét riop maic ðam é*, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as *mian*, desire; *aic*, pleasure; *áil*, will or pleasure, &c.: *ip áill liom ríor d'fáigáil*, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): *do éurpínn péim rúil an éaic rin ad h-uéat a n-ionad do rúil, ap fear diob: do b'aic liom rin, ap an dóirpreoir*, "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word *féarr*, better, is used in the same way to express preference: *ip féarr liom do dhearbhrátair ná éurá*, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); *do b'féarr le brígid leabap maic ná airgead* Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both *mian* and *féarr*:—*Ní h-é ip mian leip an uéabap (ní mo, ní h-é ip mian liom-ra) tu do b'neugan; aóat ip é dob' féarr leip rin (agur liom-ra) do éroide do fealbúgað*: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (tu do b'neugan) but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Féarr followed by *le* expresses mental preference as shown above: but *féarr* followed by *do* is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. *Ip féarr éompa anoir, ap luí, ríor na h-eapca úd do éabairt éaoib*. *Ip féarr éeana, ap iabran*, 'it is better for me now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words *beag* and *mór* (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—*Ip móp liom an luac rin*, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): *óip dá m-beic mac aguinne iona fúide pompa, níor beag leo do éurp dár mapbað é*, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for *dár mapbað*: see Idiom 1): *dár mo briaéap ap*

Naisi ní beag liune sin uairt, “‘by my word,’ says Naisi, ‘we do not think that small from thee.’”

The two expressions *ir mór le* and *ní beag le* (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: *ir mór liom aon pínigin do éabairt do*, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by *ní beag liom aon pínigin*, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (*ní mór le*—*ir beag le*) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: *ní mór liom na trí ba ro do éabairt do*, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, *ir beag liom*, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—*do beirimid ar m-briathar. ar riab, naé beag linn a m-beupam go Fionn doib*, “‘we give our word,’ said they ‘we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.’” (See Mr. Standish O’Grady’s note, in the “Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne,” p. 140.)

When *mór* and *beag* are used with the preposition *do*, they give the idea of enough or not enough for a person: *níor beag do (marbhad bair n-aithnead) mar eiric uaire,* (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: *níor beag duit a ba do bpeir ó Fhionn*, “it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn.”

29. Woe to.

Ir maing don b-peap sin, woe to that man: a *maing do’n dpung goipeap do’n olc maic*, “woe to those who call evil good.” Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, *ir maing naé n-déanann comairle beag-mhá*, “woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife” (lit. “it is woe who doeth not,” &c.).

30. So . . as: as . . as.

When these “correspondent conjunctions” are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by *ağur*, “and,” or by *le*, “with:” *ağur a duabairt ría an can do bioð a mac com appaecta ağur go lionfað a meup an ioð*, “and he said to her when his son should be so grown (com appaecta) as that his finger would fill the ring” (lit.

"so grown *and* that his finger," &c.): *do bí a pleag cóin peamap le mol muillinn*, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

Agur follows *aímlaib* or *aíla* (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows *cóin*; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "*viz.*:" *ar aímlaib do puair Nairí acap Déirdre, acap an Cennchaemh*, "it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them." (Meaning, "it was thus he found them, *viz.*, with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.")

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun *gac*, followed by the preposition *le* or *pe* *gac le* *Domnaic ag dul cum teampoill*, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: *na trí ríogte rin do Thuathuib De Danann do bí i b-plaiciop Eipeann gac pe m-bliagam*, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A g-ceann bliana, at the end of a year: *do bí riab a g-ceann na páicé*, they were at the end of the field. *A duibairt Nairí le h-Ardan dul air céann Ferguis*, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus"): *pillpe air a g-ceann*, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). *O naé liom dul ón g-contabairt ro am céann*, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me" (*am céann*, "in my head" = before me). *Racfaid ad céann, a Fhinn, agur a g-ceann na Féinne*, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). *Acap beirid buaid acap bennaictam dá cenn*, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (*dá cenn*, "from its head"). *Tar céann gur faoil an toicead naé raib baozal ar bié ar féin*, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself" (*tar céann gur*, "over the head that" = although). *Ir iongha buirre an gpaib rin do*

ṡabairṡṡaṡpa ṡap ṡeann ṡhinn, ap ṡiarmaid, “it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn,” says Diarmaid” (ṡap ṡeann ṡhinn, “over the head of Finn,” in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seagān an ṡiṡeabópa, which is word for word, “John of the weaver,” means in reality “John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver:” Seagān na bairṡeabaiṡe, “John (the son, &c.) of the widow.”

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first: thus ṡeṡṡur maop (nom.) means “Fergus the steward;” but ṡeṡṡur an maop (gen.) is “Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.”

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as “the house of Fergus the steward,” in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 96) should also be in the genitive: ṡeac ṡheṡṡur an maop. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus “the house of Fergus the steward” is ṡeac ṡheṡṡur maop (in which ṡheṡṡur is gen. and maop nom.); whereas ṡeac ṡheṡṡur an maop is understood to mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” So in Dr. MacHale’s translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

Ópuṡ Acuil peinn, óṡ neamṡa, aṡ buan ṡearṡ;

Acuil mic Peil, an ṡairṡiṡeac ṡeinnṡeac ṡarṡ.

“The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*”

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck.

Here the last noun *ḡairḡiḡeac*, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while *Ḃcuil*, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, *bean Sheagáin an fíḡeabópa*, accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by *bean Sheagáin fíḡeabóip*.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb *tá* and the preposition *aḡ*, in this form, *tá leabap aḡ an duine*, "a book is at (or with) the man:" *tá airḡeab aḡum* ("money is with me"), I have money: *cia bé aḡ a b-puil airḡeab* ("whoever with whom is money"), whoever has money. *Ní féidip le duine an nḡ naḡ m-beiḡeab aḡe do tabairt uaid*, *aḡup ní b-puil do-mapḡḡeacḡ aḡumpa*, "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself"). *Do aḡel Concuḡap bopaḡ acap do fíapḡaiḡ dḡ an paib pleḡ ollaḡ aḡe do*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit.: "whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.]"

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. *Cia aḡumne aḡ a b-puil an fípinne?* "Which of us has the truth?" This is word for word: "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition *aḡ* in this construction governs not only the relative *a*, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative *cia*. *Tá bean eile a n-Ḃoḡaill a b-puil aici copóin air*, "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (i.e. to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative *a* before *b-puil*, and by *aici*; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition *aḡ* of *aici*. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:—*Tá bean*

eile a n-Éoðáill ag a b-puill copóim air. The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, *cia leir an t-eač rín* (who owns that house), the *le* of *leir* would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative *cia*.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb *ir* and the preposition *le*, with: *ir leatpa an t-eač*, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"): *ir lem' atair na ba rín*, those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those cows"): *cia léir na ba rín*, who owns those cows? ("who with him [are] those cows?") *Oir ir le neač éirín do Thuata De Danann na muca*, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) *an leat péin an épaob rín?* "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—*Ta airgead go leór agad, ačt ní leat péim é*, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb *ta* and the preposition *ó* from: *ta leabap uaim*, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:" *cneud atá uait?* "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, *agamn*, *agamh*, *aca*, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: *Do bí leabap aca*, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: *gač fear aguin*, "each man of us," *no eirig an dapa fear acofan do déanam an éleapa*, "the

second man *of them* (acorán, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" cía aḡuinne aḡ a b-*p*uil an *p*írinne, ar *P*íonn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (aḡ a b-*p*uil, "with whom is" = "has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*: map ḡo *ṣ*tuḡ^ṣear dá ban*ṣ*ua^ṣacá ar bhé*ṣ*oil aḡur ar *O*hanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.'" Map ḡo b-*ṣ*uḡ clear ar an ḡ-clear *p*ín, "as he called that feat 'a feat:'" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" Rop-dá-*p*áileac *p*ir a *p*á*ṣ*ṣ^ṣear *ṣ*uimneac aniu, "Ros-da-shaileach which is called Limerick now" (lit. "R. with which is said 'Limerick' now").

39. De after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de* "of it," is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Aḡur ḡion ḡo b-*p*uil cuib aḡuinn do map*ṣ*ad *D*iarmada, ní mó*ṣ*de do ḡeub*ṣ*ad (Aongur) an *p*írinne uaim, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here mó*ṣ*de is *de* added to mó, the comparative of mór, great: for ḡion ḡo = "although not:" see Idiom 11). Ir *p*ur*ṣ*de b'*P*íonn ár loḡna leanam, an eac*ṣ*na be*ṣ*ṣ^ṣ aḡuinn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (*p*ur*ṣ*de = *de* after *p*ur*ṣ*a, comparative of *p*ur*ṣ*ur, easy): i.e. "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish *p*earp *m*ór neap*ṣ*, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words *m*ór neap*ṣ* being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "*of* great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb *p*ir in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with "*of*" in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. *Ní raib a g-cómhairp nír fear ba mhó ón aghur arigead ná Diarmaid*, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," i.e. "a man who was *of* greater gold and silver.") *Do dearcap an beic ba niamhóla cruic*, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" *Talam ba fearr biaó aghur deoó*, "a land (of) the best food and drink:" *Oisín ba éneun neart a'rluic*, "Oisín of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition *go* (with) is used instead of the verb: as *fear go móir neart*, a man *with* great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as "Alas that I have not got it!" the word *gan* being generally used as the negative particle. *Ar cruicig gan peata 'n máoir aghum!* "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here *ar cruicig*, "it is pity" = "alas:" *aghum* is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me.") *A Dhia gan mé am' abailín*, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

42. One noun asserted of another by *cá*.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb *cá*, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition *a* or *ann*, 'in,' and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus "I am a man," if expressed in Irish by *cá*, will be (not *cá mé fear*, but) *cá mé am' fear*, which is word for word, "I am in my man." *bí túra ad' rígan aghur míre am' fear*, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). *Bechoill aghur Danann do bí i n-a m-baincigeapnaib*, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): *is fearr éirean míle uair ná túra, cuir a g-cár go b-fuil tú ad' ríge no ad' príonnra*. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (*cuir a g-cár*, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): *raib na daoine bárla cuir aca 'n-a*

n-ógánaib, aḡur cuib aca 'n-a pcanóiriḡib, "men die ('receive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuib aca: Idiom 37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in their youths and some of them in their old men.") *Q* *U*ha, ḡan mé am' aḡaillín!" "would God that I were an apple!" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. *Tá*impe am' éodla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): *d'éirigh ina pcarpaín*, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): *míre am' aonap*, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): *clanna Lir ina ḡ-ceatpar*, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition *ann* is used with *ta* without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as *atá aon Dia amáin ann*, there is only one God; here the *ann* in the end, which has no representative in the translation, means "in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this *ann* answers very nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as *ip tú atá ann* "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between *ip* and *ta*.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between *ip* and *ta*.

1. *Ip* is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as *ip mé an t-pligé, an p-píinne, aḡur an beata*, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, *ta* is used; as *ta mé a m-baile atá cliat*, I am in Dublin: *an paib tú ann rin?* wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either *ip* or *ta* may be used:—*ip bpeaḡ an lá é*, or *ta an lá bpeaḡ*, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. *Ip* connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as *ip pcarp mé*, I am a man. But *ta* cannot do this without the aid of the preposition *i* or *inn* and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as *ta mé am' pcarp*, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. *Ip* expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by *τá*, there is *often* something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me *ip peap é*, your assertion means nothing more than that “he is a man”—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, *ip peap é*, by which I understand you to mean “it is a man”—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me *τá pé 'n-a peap* (“he is in his man”), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, *τá pé 'n-a peap*.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by *τá*, it is not always so; as *ní b-puill aét aon Dia amáin ann, aca 'n-a fíor-rippiortaib*, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by *τá* though there can be no change.

4. *τá* is used with *ag* to denote possession (Idiom 43); *ip* is used with *le* to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

τá may indeed be used with *le*, but the idea conveyed is not “belonging to,” but “being favourable to:” *Do bí Eolup leo* (“Eolus was with them”), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if *ip* had been used), but that “Eolus was favourable to them”—“was on their side.”

5. *τá* is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as *τá ocpar opm*, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here *ip* cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—*ip paiðbne é ná mipe* or *τá pé mop paiðbne ná mipe*, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, *ip*, not *τá*, must be used:—*ip é ip peap ip paiðbne ran dúicé é*, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF DECLENSIONS.

FIRST DECLENSION.

bneac, a trout.

Singular.	Plural.
N. <i>bneac.</i>	<i>bpic.</i>
G. <i>bpic.</i>	<i>bneac.</i>
D. <i>bneac.</i>	<i>bneacaiḃ.</i>
V. <i>a bpic.</i>	<i>a bneaca.</i>

SECOND DECLENSION.

Cor, a foot.

N. <i>cor.</i>	<i>cora.</i>
G. <i>coipe</i>	<i>cor.</i>
D. <i>coip.</i>	<i>coraiḃ.</i>

THIRD DECLENSION.

Figeaðóir, a weaver; masc.

N. <i>figeaðóir.</i>	<i>figeaðóiriḡe.</i>
G. <i>figeaðóra.</i>	<i>figeaðóir</i>
D. <i>figeaðóir.</i>	<i>figeaðóiriḃ.</i>

Aṡair, a father; masc.

N. <i>aṡair.</i>	<i>aṡre, aṡre- aṡa.</i>
G. <i>aṡar.</i>	<i>aṡreacḃ.</i>
D. <i>aṡair.</i>	<i>aṡreacḃaiḃ.</i>

(*Máṡair, a mother, and
bráṡair or deapbráṡair, a
brother, are declined in the
same way.*)

bliaðain, a year; fem.

N. <i>bliaðain.</i>	<i>bliaðanta.</i>
G. <i>bliaðna.</i>	<i>bliaðan.</i>
D. <i>bliaðain</i>	<i>bliaðantaiḃ.</i>

Ainm, a name.

N. <i>ainm.</i>	<i>anmanna.</i>
G. <i>ainme, anma.</i>	<i>anmann.</i>
D. <i>ainm</i>	<i>anmannaiḃ.</i>

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Teime, a fire.

Singular.	Plural.
N. <i>teime.</i>	<i>teimeṡe</i>
G. <i>teime.</i>	<i>teimeacḃ.</i>
D. <i>teime.</i>	<i>teimeṡiḃ.</i>

Eínín, a little bird.

N. <i>eínín.</i>	<i>eíníníḃe.</i>
G. <i>eínín.</i>	<i>eínín.</i>
D. <i>eínín.</i>	<i>eíníníḃ.</i>

FIFTH DECLENSION.

Lánaíña, a married couple.

N. <i>lánaíña.</i>	<i>lánaíña.</i>
G. <i>lánaíñan.</i>	<i>lánaíñan.</i>
D. <i>lánaíñain.</i>	<i>lánaíñnaiḃ.</i>

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

ḡa, a spear.

N. <i>ḡa, ḡacḃ.</i>	<i>ḡaoi, ḡaeta, ḡaoiṡe.</i>
G. <i>ḡai, ḡaoi.</i>	<i>ḡacḃ, ḡaetaḃ, ḡaoiṡeacḃ.</i>
D. <i>ḡa, ḡai.</i>	<i>ḡaoiḃ, ḡeataiḃ ḡaoiṡiḃ.</i>

Cpḡ, a hut, a sheepfold.

N. <i>cpḡ.</i>	<i>cpaoiṡe, cpḡiṡe</i>
G. <i>cpḡ.</i>	<i>cpḡ.</i>
D. <i>cpḡ.</i>	<i>cpaoiṡiḃ, cpḡi ṡiḃ.</i>
V. <i>a cpḡo.</i>	<i>a cpaoiṡe, a cpḡiṡe.</i>

Sliab, a mountain.

N. <i>pliab.</i>	<i>pléiḃṡe</i>
G. <i>pléiḃe.</i>	<i>pléiḃṡeacḃ.</i>
D. <i>pliab.</i>	<i>pléiḃṡiḃ.</i>



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